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The World to-day

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Volume VII

FROM JULY 1, 1904, TO JANUARY 1, 1905

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Marconi's Work in Europe

THOSE who read Miss Bernardy's thoughtful article on Marconi's Work in Europe in the April issue of THE WORLD TO-DAY may wish to know something more concerning the work of the great Italian Inventor. Not the least interesting of his accomplishments is the transatlantic wireless telegraphic service between the United States and Europe. In this connection there is an opportunity for the reader to profit greatly by the opportunity which the Marconi system opens to each individual to make money as it was made out of the beginnings of the Bell Telephone, Edison Electric Light, electric power transmission, etc.—not in 8 per cent returns upon money invested, but in goodly profits of from 100 to 1,000 per cent. We have made arrangements to supply readers of THE WORLD TO-DAY with details of these important plans now going forward in America. If you want full information, cut out and forward the coupon below:

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The World To-Day

VOLUME VII. JULY, 1904. NUMBER 1

EVENTS OF THE MONTH

The New Partisanship

IT USED to be said that the death of partisanship was the hope of politics. We have changed all that. The events of the last few weeks show that partisanship has been rehabilitated. A few years ago when the independent voter wished to correct some abuse or to oust some official he judged it necessary to vote outside his party affiliations. He committed political suicide and called it reform.

* * *

We still reserve the right to scratch tickets, but we are beginning to see that partisanship has possibilities for good as well as for evil. One thing we have learned pretty thoroughly: Reform to be effective must be accomplished by one or the other of the two great parties. Even in municipal politics these are seen to be not quite the evil we used to think them. We no longer wish to elect a mayor on a national issue, but we do not see the need of manufacturing more machinery for local elections.

* * *

The reasons for this changed attitude are numerous, but one stands out above them all—the efficiency of the party organization. In politics, as in war, it is the mob that gets beaten. We are ready now to be organized and disciplined, but we are determined that we shall choose our own leaders and that they shall be trustworthy. The new partisanship if possible is more interested in primaries than in elections. It would destroy not the party, but the machine that misleads the party. And how? By reforming the old machine out of existence and by building up a new one. It believes that honest men, as well as rascals, can play at practical politics.

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There is another aspect of this rehabilitated partisanship which is not quite so apparent but is none the less important. Party loyalty is perhaps the strongest defense against the impending struggle of classes. There may come times when the elements of a party go to war with each other, and it is hard to say which of them really represents the party. But, after all, the party survives, whoever controls it. And it is well that it does survive. It will be a sorry day for the Republic when the lines of party cleavage are social. The constantly growing complication between government and corporations it is to be hoped will be adjusted gradually. That is the Anglo-Saxon method. We want reforms, but there are some reforms we do not want erected into political issues. The doctrinaire is the one sort of reformer we do not need. Abolish existing party organizations and attempt a new combination of independent units and he will be our dictator. While men can be held to existing parties such dictatorship is impossible. Destroy partisanship as it now exists and instead of being Democrats or Republicans we shall all be Socialists or Anti-Socialists. Better the evils of partisan politics than the evils of a conflict between classes! Machine rule as we have known it is an evil, but it is not revolution. The new partisanship promises relief from both.

* * *

Not that this alternative is distinctly in men's minds. The compelling motive is less the forecast of the future than disgust with the present. At bottom the rehabilitation of partisanship is a moral revival. Possibly it is even a mistake to call it a revival, for it is all but unique in American history. We have seen great parties formed under a moral enthusiasm, but they have been new parties. What we are seeing to-day is the capture of old parties by men who would use them to remedy the evils they have occasioned. Partisanship is thus becoming the cure of partisanship. You might almost call it a case of political homeopathy.

* * *

But it would be mistaken optimism to regard all the men engaged in these recent upheavals as political saints. Many of them have been and still are political rascals. And this is possibly the most interesting feature of the entire matter. Where rascals have fallen out honest men have come in. The moral sense of the community has become strong enough to dictate terms. It is making the wrath of man praise it.

* * *

It is always unsafe to prophesy, but it is never rash to hope. And at last the man who believes in politics can hope. Statecraft is to be no longer a mere matter of patronage. The professional politician has unexpectedly discovered that he is the servant and not the ruler of his party. The lesson will not be lost. The "organization" may well learn this. The reformer has ceased to be utopian and is "playing politics." And his politics are and must continue to be honest.

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World Politics

The Russo-Japanese War

It has become manifest that the capture of Port Arthur is the primary object of the Japanese. The increasing naval operations before the harbor of that town, the military conquest of Korea, the campaign in southern Manchuria, culminating in the invasion of the Liaotung Peninsula, are all obvious preparations for the siege of the Muscovite stronghold. The Japanese now even imply that they will undertake to carry Port Arthur by regular assault in the near future. Though such an attempt must needs involve an immense loss of life, the islanders seem to feel the necessity of reducing the fortresses and fleet there before the arrival in the Yellow Sea next autumn of the Russian Baltic fleet. Were it not for the recent six days' battle won by General Oku's forces at Kinchow, one would consider such a thing as storming Port Arthur a piece of madness not to be thought of under the conditions of modern warfare. But the Japanese, by their strange combination of fanatical, reckless daring and cool, precise calculation, have steadily broken all the accepted rules of military science. It is well-known that military science comprises nothing but the methods of the most successful generals and the rules derived from these methods have been regularly deprived of their authority by the originality of later commanders. The Japanese generals are giving the world the same surprises as it experienced from the great victories of former wars. They have carefully studied the lessons afforded by all the wars of recent years, from the Franco-Prussian struggle to American campaigns in the Philippines. But these lessons have served as mere suggestions to the ingenuity of a martial little people that has suddenly mastered all the arts of modern civilization while continuing to enjoy the barbaric bravery of its more primitive days. Instead of merely imitating the Occident the Nipponese have profited by its mistakes and adapted its arts to Oriental conditions. The result is that the Russian generals can not understand, much less forestall their enemy. Whole divisions of the Japanese army move with the secrecy of a python traversing a jungle, and strike unawares with the same deadly force and

THE JAPANESE BATTLESHIP HATSUSE, DESTROYED MAY 15, 1904

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JAPANESE RED CROSS STEAMER

precision. Ever since the Japanese have crossed the Yalu several thousand Cossacks have been operating in their rear, carrying on minor raids in northern Korea but doing little damage. Their function is to serve as scouts, yet they have been unable to keep the Russian authorities informed of the Japanese movements.

Kuroki and Kuropatkin

General Kuroki's main base is at Fengwangcheng, which is strongly fortified. His left wing extends to a powerful base at Takushan, where Lieutenant-General Nodzu is in command of about 20,000 men, according to Russian estimate. The location and strength of Kuroki's right are absolutely unknown outside the Japanese ranks. It is rumored to be somewhere on the road that leads to Mukden in a region of great difficulty for campaigning on account of rough roads and narrow passes. General Kuropatkin's army lies parallel to General Kuroki's at a distance of about one hundred miles. Newchwang is the base of Kuropatkin's right and his line extends along the railroad through Haicheng, Liaoyang and Mukden, Liaoyang being the main point of concentration and well fortified. Skirmishes between scouts from Kuropatkin's and Kuroki's forces have been frequent, the number killed being slight and the object merely to locate the enemy's position. The most important of these outpost skirmishes occurred on May 18, at a point twenty-eight miles north of Fengwangcheng. Several regiments of Cossacks attacked the Japanese advance guard and drove it back fifteen miles toward Fengwangcheng.

Kinchow and Nanshan

All the hard fighting since May 1 has been done by General Oku's division, which landed west of the mouth of the Yalu River and invaded the Liaotung Peninsula. He has won the second great battle of the war and opened the way to Port Arthur, though with terrible sacrifice of life. Kinchow lies thirty-two miles northeast of Port Arthur, at a place where the Liaotung Peninsula is only two miles wide. From sea to sea extend Kinchow heights, with Nanshan Hill just south of them, all which formed an important outpost to Port Arthur. As there was no available landing place between Kinchow and Port Arthur, and as the narrowness of the peninsula afforded scant area for maneuvering, the Japanese simply had to carry Kinchow by dint of hard fighting. The attack began on May 21 and continued six days. But the great battle occurred on May 26, when both Kinchow heights and Nanshan Hill were finally carried at the point of the bayonet. Such a bayonet charge in the face of modern rapid-firing guns is a military anachronism. The Japanese accomplished what European experts would have declared impossible. It was a bloody victory, 4,300 Japanese being killed and only about eight hundred and fifty Russians. The next morning the Nipponese pressed on and occupied Naquanling, the second line of Russian defense, thus gaining control of over half of the shore line of Talienwan Bay. Skirmishing continues between Oku's rearguard and Cossack scouts, but the Russians are not pursuing him in any force. Kuropatkin's position is embarrassing. Should he try to relieve Port

AN AMMUNITION WAGON

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WAR CORRESPONDENTS SHUT UP IN TOKYO, WAITING FOR PASSPORTS
Richard Harding Davis sitting on the ground
Frederick Villiers standing at the end of the line, with cane

Arthur by marching down the railroad to strike Oku's rear, not only would he find Oku's rear strongly fortified but he would also expose the Russian left to an attack from the Japanese Nodzu at Takushan, while General Kuroki could simultaneously attack the Russian rear at Fengwangcheng, while the mysterious Japanese right could guard against a Russian attack from the north. The Japanese are masters of the situation on land as well as at sea, having carried out a most carefully planned campaign, with a view to taking Port Arthur.

Naval Losses

Admiral Togo has been guarding the mouth of Port Arthur Harbor ever since May 5. The loss of the first-class battleship Hatsuse and the armored cruisers Mikaya and Yoshino did not impair the Japanese mastery of the sea, because of the damage done to the Russian fleet early in the war. Moreover, the Russians have further suffered a severe blow in the loss of the Bogatyr, one of the four cruisers of the Vladivostok fleet. It was accidentally stranded on the rocks and then blown up in order to keep it from falling into Japanese hands. The Russian squadrons continue helpless, while the Japanese keep on sailing their transports to whatever landing places they choose.

War In Tibet

There is no longer any pretense, even in England, that a state of war does not exist in Tibet. The British mission continues to be a peaceful one in so far as Colonel Younghusband is an accredited ambassador to the Tibetan government, but is military on account of the armed escort under General MacDonald. The

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A JAPANESE RESERVIST LEAVING HOME

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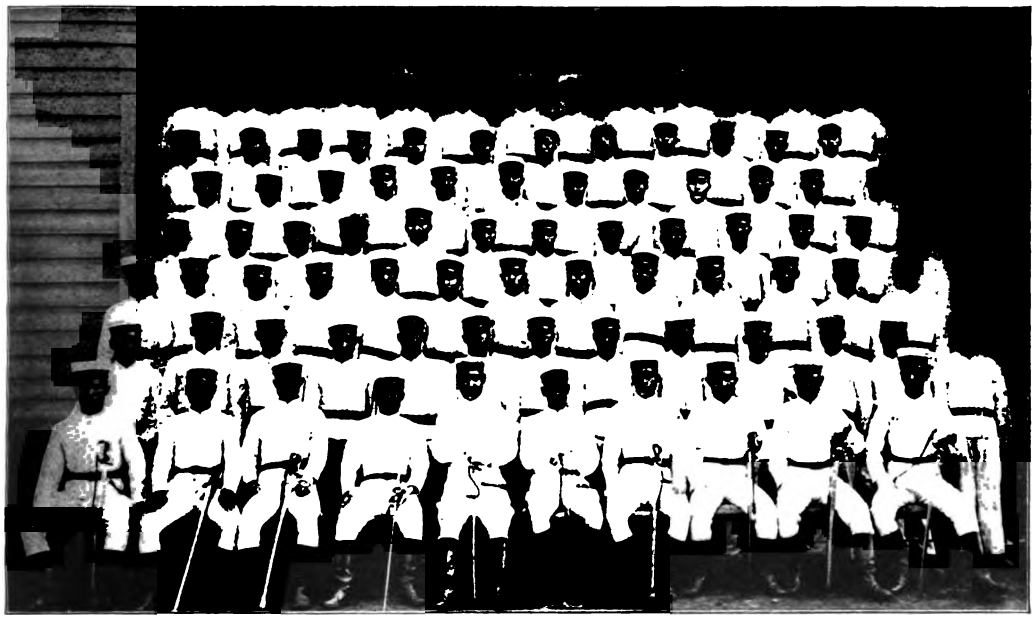
English government finds that there remains no recourse but to force a passage to Lassa, and has therefore ordered that reinforcements be sent to Gyantse, Tibet, where Colonel Younghusband and his escort have been isolated by the natives and are subjected to a severe siege. The Lamas have proclaimed a holy war and the Tibetans besieging the British camp are evidently armed with weapons more modern than those who were routed in the first encounter. They are making almost daily assaults and inflicting some losses. The war bids fair to be prolonged on account of the Lamas' determination to preserve Tibetan isolation.



THE MIKADO'S BODY GUARD

A Lull in British Politics

A large section of the British public grows extremely anxious when Mr. Chamberlain keeps quiet. In comparison it is much happier when he is on a campaign, even a mistaken one, than when he preserves the sphinx-like silence he seems to have brought back with him from Egypt. He has announced that his physician will not permit him to exert himself to the same extent as he did last summer and autumn, and, accordingly, his engagements to speak have, with two exceptions, been postponed till October. It is plainly evident that his masterly inactivity is of great service to the Unionist party, which would be seriously hampered in its present precarious condition if it had to answer for all his protectionist utterances. There is little doubt that an informal compact has been entered into by him and Mr. Balfour. He remains silent, leaves the Prime Minister free to pass his various bills, and in exchange the Prime Minister soothes the Free Trade Unionists by being apparently less inclined than formerly for protection, but is ready to join him as soon as he chooses to make the pace in the autumn. What will become of the Unionist party? Will the bulk of the members follow Mr. Balfour? Or will they risk the ruin of their party by splitting into Free Traders and Protectionists? The next question is, Will the Free Traders join the Liberal party or will they form a new party of their own? The action of Mr. Winston Churchill has roused protests from the Unionist press. If the Liberal party had a leader who could lead—call forth enthusiasm—he would doubtless capture the Free Trade Unionists. But, under the present conditions, it is more probable that the Free Trade Unionists will, when Mr. Chamberlain once more begins his campaign, form themselves into a fourth party, still opposed to home rule for Ireland.

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PRESIDENT LOUBET AT THE QUIRINAL

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PRINCE COLONNA PRESENTING THE WELCOME OF THE CITY OF ROME

The French President in Rome

Rome went mad over the recent visit of President Loubet. No recent event seems to have concentrated public feeling so thoroughly, and far from alienating public sympathy, the very fact of the French president's coming to Rome, not as France was wont to come, as an ally of her former despots, but as a friend of the new dynasty, appears to have enraptured all classes. The influx of visitors was so unprecedented as to exhaust the capacity of the hotels, and many who came expressly to see the illuminations were obliged to pass the night in the open squares. The flower growers of the Riviera contributed a magnificent show of roses, lilies of the valley and carnations, which were laid out on a bed of ferns in parterre style up the center of the famous Spanish steps, flanked by baskets of calla lilies, iris and mimosa on the parapets at either side. In the busy heart of the city, moreover, a garden grew up in a single night, in spite of the heat of the early season, with tall firs and cypresses to hide the disfiguring advertisements on old buildings, with grass plots and gravel walks, and beds of roses beautifully bordered. Every historic palace hung out its oldest damask, rich velvets and arras, and several—among them the Ruspoli—did not fear to trust the effect of illumination by long candles or torches, one on either side of the windows. It was not less interesting to see the ingenious devices of the poorer quarters, the paper lanterns among the green of a balcony, the red, blue and white flowers on a white ground over a florist's shop, the tricolor bunting binding a coffee-house lamp, the colored tissue paper twisted carelessly around glaring white electric lights, making them look for all the world like flower buds, the best bed quilt thrown over a stone balcony and penny flags and favors on the horses' heads. Even the tramcars were gay with the alternated Italian and French coats of arms.

Loubet in the Forum.

The special features of President Loubet's stay in Rome were, of course, his visits to the monuments. At the Pantheon, the national mausoleum, he left two beautifully wrought souvenirs

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in silver and bronze on the tombs of King Humbert and Victor Emmanuel II. At the Roman Forum, Signor Boni, the energetic archaeologist and explorer, was waiting to assist the distinguished sightseer, and was able to tell his tale in as fluent French as last year in English to Edward VII. of England—a fine example of the versatility of Italian genius. M. Loubet was first taken over the recently discovered Christian Basilica of Santa Maria Antiqua, with its curious frescoes, then to the Sepulcretum, where he appeared most interested in the tombs and cinerary urns. The party then proceeded to the Niger Lapis or tomb of Romulus, and ended their visit to the Forum on the site of the Curtian Lake, where the latest explorations have brought to light unmistakable remains of an altar. Nowhere better than in the Roman Forum could the French President have realized more vividly the common origin of the Latin races, or felt more strongly the subtle efficacy of the link which that latinity establishes between the French and Italian peoples. This link becomes more important to the Latin nations, as Teutonic and Slavonic pressure drives them together.

SIGNOR BONI SHOWING THE FORUM TO PRESIDENT LOUBET

France and the Vatican

President Loubet's failure to visit the Vatican during his visit to the King of Italy gave offense which which was expressed in a papal note of protest to the Catholic powers of Europe. What followed is undoubtedly as stated in the *Osservatore Romano,* the Vatican organ. M. Nisard, the French ambassador to the Vatican, called on Cardinal Merry Del Val, saying that he had been instructed by Foreign Minister Delcasse to inquire as to the authenticity of the text of the note to the Catholic powers, as published in the Paris *L'Humanite,* which varied from that directed to the French government, and to ask especially if the phrase regarding the recall of the nuncio, which was omitted from the note addressed to France, was really in that sent to the other powers. Cardinal Del Val demanded that the inquiry be put in writing. Ambassador Nisard refused, demanding an instant "Yes" or "No." Del Val promised him an answer within an hour. "Then," said M. Nisard, "I shall telegraph to Minister Delcasse that you refuse to reply." Del Val protested, saying that, on the contrary, he had promised a writ-

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ten answer within an hour. The next day M. Nisard called again on the papal secretary of state and told him that the demand for a written form of Nisard's questions had been interpreted as an effort to evade the subject, and that the French ambassador had been instructed to leave Rome. The recall of M. Nisard has been indorsed by a large majority in the Chamber of Deputies, but the papal nuncio has been instructed not to leave Paris except on compulsion.

Moroccan Bandits and the United States

The anarchy existing in Morocco has at last involved the interests of the United States government, as well as the government of Great Britain. Raisuli, the notorious insurgent chief, kidnapped Ion Pericardis, a rich American, and Cromwell Varley, Perdicaris' English stepson, in order to bring pressure to bear on Sultan Mulai Abdul Aziz to secure recognition as a separate vassal sovereign for the outlaw over a large region. The Moroccans have no regard for the United States or its representatives, knowing nothing of the American strength, as Americans have never played a prominent part in Morocco. The prompt, vigorous action of President Roosevelt in sending the European squadron to Tangier stands out in striking contrast to the supineness of the Washington government during the captivity of Miss Ellen M. Stone, by the Turkish bandits. Meanwhile, Morocco is seething with discontent and the Sultan is almost powerless. Chief Raisuli demands a ransom of $70,000 for the release of the captives, to be collected from the governor of Tangier and Fez; absolute immunity for himself and followers from pursuit or punishment for the kidnapping and other crimes; that the Moroccan troops be withdrawn from the region in which he and his band operate; that he be allowed to rule and levy taxes in this region; that the United States and Great Britain solemnly guarantee the observance of the foregoing stipulations by the Moroccan government. The United States government has refused to accede to these demands, finding them, of course, impossible. The French government has courteously undertaken to render the utmost aid in securing the release of the captives.

MULAI ABDUL AZIZ, SULTAN OF MOROCCO

If the Barbary States are beginning to forget the severe lesson taught them by the United States in the Tripolitan war a century ago, for the depredations of their pirates, they may expect to be reminded of it presently by the application of modern shrapnel and dynamite. Great Britain has ordered warships to Tangier, and now Belgium has become involved. A band of Moors recently entered the Belgian legation with intent to rob.

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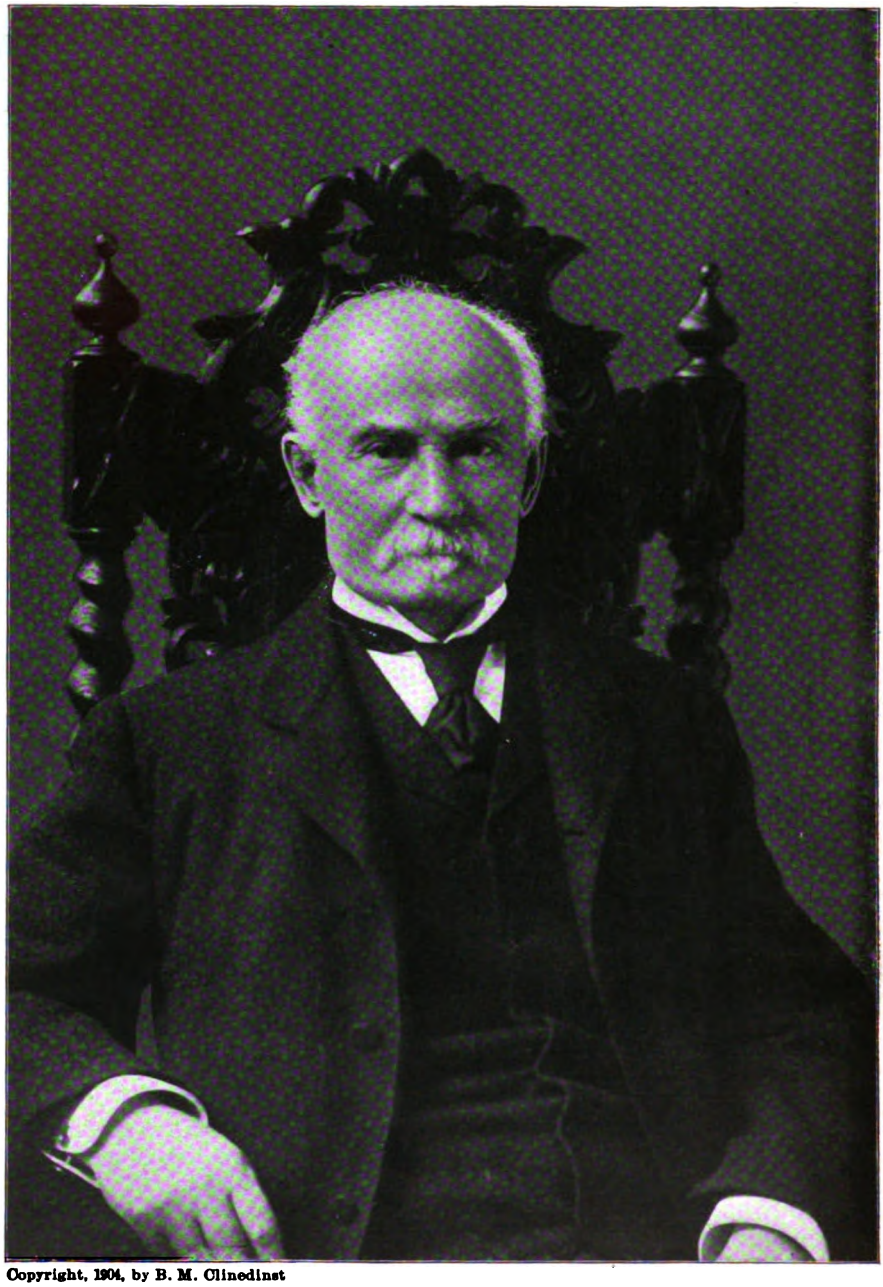

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ROBERT ROBERTS HITT
The Illinois candidate for Vice-President

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MISS ALICE ROOSEVELT AND PARTY AT THE PHILIPPINE VILLAGE, ST. LOUIS
Photographs by N. Lazarnick

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The Nation

The Poolroom Reform and Miss Gould

The Western Union Telegraph Company, finding it impossible to withstand the flood of public criticism and the threatened legal action of Mr. Jerome, has abandoned its entire racetrack and poolroom service throughout the country. This means that prompt information of the results of races can be communicated to city gamblers only by ordinary private messages filed and dispatched in the regular course of business, or by telephone. The company's legal arguments by which it sought to evade responsibility for the facilities furnished to the poolrooms were controverted by District Attorney Jerome, who made plain the difference between public service and special high-priced exclusive poolroom service furnished by it. Of course this step will not wholly stop poolroom gambling, and it will tend to increase the business of bookmakers at the tracks. But it undoubtedly makes difficult the maintenance of cheap, easy methods by which clerks and office boys can place their money on the horses, and in so far is a moral advance. No credit therefor is due to the telegraph company, which has been catering to this vice at great profit to itself for many years. Even the high-minded gentlemen among its directors, whose influence finally forced the abandonment of the service, can hardly be entitled to public commendation since they adopted the reform only under fire, after being cognizant of the situation for a long period. Rumor attributes to Miss Helen Gould a considerable share in the affair, and if the report be true this is one more example of the quiet, unobtrusive acts of goodness which have made her name beloved more than that of any other living American woman. A portrait of her appears on page 906. It would not be easy to exaggerate the influence of this modern Saint Helen in forwarding many charities and reforms which are making this country a better place to live in. One has only to recall her beautiful work for the sick soldiers during the war with Spain, her interest in the men of the army and navy as shown in her contributions to Christian Association buildings, her patriotic service to the government on more than one occasion, as examples of a life of true Christian service outside the regular ecclesiastical channels. Surely Jay Gould's millions are in good hands; the daughter is adorning a name that the father left beclouded. *Richesse oblige* is a good motto for the second generation of millionaires.

Politics and Foreign Trade

Failure of Congress to take action on the eight-hour and other so-called labor bills and its neglect of certain Democratic trust resolutions, as well as such other partisan ammunition as the charge that the President has interfered with matters of legislation, will play their parts in the presidential campaign this year. Yet the Republicans probably are right in anticipating that the tariff issue will be brought forward most conspicuously by their opponents. The remarkable lack of interest in trade reciprocity with foreign nations shown by both parties, notwithstanding the demand for it by various large commercial organizations, seems to foreshadow a rather empty campaign of tariff platitudes. More and more also the interest of foreign nations in trade reciprocity plans is giving way to settled hostility and a desire to fight it out. Canada's hopes are fixed upon the possible success of the Chamberlain program in Great Britain, which would bestow on it preferential treatment in that great market. So the tariff issue, in the light of developments abroad and the lassitude at home of those who hold with Governor Cummins, of Iowa, and Mr. Foss, of Boston, that trade reciprocity is the chief question of the day, may lead to nothing profitable. If the Democrats were to stand for the reciprocity policy of Blaine and McKinley, they should be able to convince very many voters beyond the lines of their party that the Republican plan of holding fast to the rigid system of exclusion, which sets the rest of the world to combining against our products, grows increasingly harmful with each passing year. That a considerable part of the country's manufacturing and trading interests already accepts this view seems clear from resolutions adopted at recent meetings of organizations representing them.

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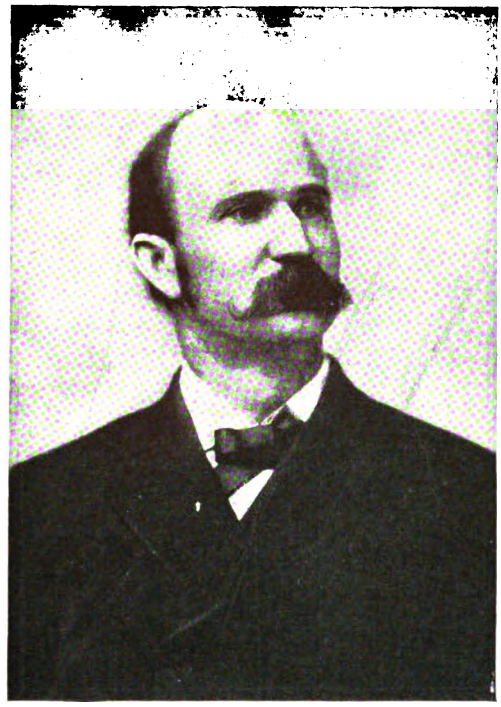
Prospects of the Democrats

But even many Democrats have grown more conservative on the subject of the tariff than they were previous to the years of prosperity. The state convention in California, which instructed its delegates to St. Louis to vote for Hearst for President, declared for tariff revision, "always making due allowance in the adjustment of rates for all differences in the cost of production." This is more logical than the declaration of the Iowa Republicans for "reciprocity in non-competitive products only," but it does not reveal that a burning desire for radical tariff reform exists on the Pacific Coast. One of the advantages which the ardent friends of changeless high tariff schedules have presented to their adversaries, however, is the possibility of being conservative on tariff matters and still on the side of reform. This subject, however, can only be discussed intelligently in the light of the two national platforms. There is an impression abroad that David B. Hill will be largely instrumental in framing the Democratic declarations of principles to be adopted by the St. Louis convention. He controls the New York delegation. His candidate for President, Judge Parker, occupies a commanding position among all the possible candidates. The three doubtful states of New York, Indiana and Connecticut having declared for him early, Democratic opinion in many other states, particularly in the South, has turned to him as the most available candidate. The Hearst strength and the opposition of Mr. Bryan, together with the belief in some quarters that Judge Parker is a "corporation man," may suffice to turn the convention away from Mr. Hill's candidate, but such influences are not likely, even in that event, to keep Mr. Hill from dominating the committee on resolutions and submerging his unpleasant memories of the Chicago and Kansas City platforms of eight and four years ago beneath a signal triumph. Probably Mr. Hill deems it more important to be able to say what the Democratic party thinks this year than to choose the party's candidate for President. Since the so-called reorganizers are almost certain to control the convention, the platform and the candidate presumably will be of their choosing. After Parker may be mentioned such possible candidates as Olney, of Massachusetts; Gray, of Delaware; McClellan, of New York; Gorman, of Maryland, and Folk, of Missouri. Opposition to a third term seems to render the nomination of Cleveland out of the question. Hearst's numerous delegates and such



DAVID B. HILL

ARTHUR P. GORMAN

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GEORGE B. M'CLELLAN

JOSEPH W. FOLK

GEORGE GRAY

RICHARD OLNEY

POSSIBLE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATES FOR PRESIDENT

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alliances as his and Bryan's forces may be able to make are not likely to prevent an early nomination of a candidate chosen by the conservative element.

For the Republican Campaign

Subject to the approval of the Republican national committee, President Roosevelt some weeks ago selected as the late Senator Hanna's successor at the head of that powerful body Mr. Cortelyou, Secretary of Commerce and Labor in the cabinet. This is a quite unusual selection, since holders of the chairmanship in the past have been political leaders in their own right. Mr. Cortelyou is solely the President's representative. That he will make an admirable manager of a political campaign is probable, since he has experience, ability and tact. As secretary to President McKinley and in his official relationship with President Roosevelt, not to mention his close associations with Mr. Hanna in two national campaigns, he has obtained a knowledge of political conditions that should be invaluable to him in his prospective task. It is said that President Roosevelt chose him for the position, after failing to induce either Mr. Root, Mr. Crane, of Massachusetts, or Mr. Bliss, of New York, to undertake the labor and responsibility which go with the chairmanship, because he found that powerful financial and commercial interests were pressing upon him various men of their own. Wishing to be sure of getting a chairman who would have no obscure influences behind him and whose methods would be unobjectionable to the country, the President took Mr. Cortelyou from the cabinet. However felicitous the choice may be from other points of view, one must feel that to deprive the new department of Commerce and Labor of the secretary who has so lately organized it is to exalt in an unpleasant manner the political needs of a party above the nation's need for good departmental service.

GEORGE B. CORTELYOU

GOVERNOR R. M. LA FOLLETTE

Republican Bolt in Wisconsin

Governor Robert M. LaFollette, of Wisconsin, is a forceful man who has sought to bring about certain popular reforms in connection with the railway corporations of his state. He has been bitterly fought for years by a part of the Republican organization under the lead-

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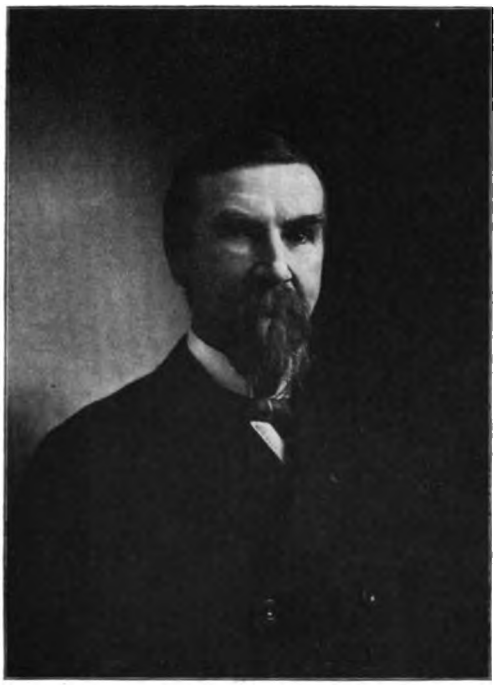

SAMUEL A. COOK

ership of Senator Spooner. During his two terms of office he has pressed his reform measures relentlessly, but with little tact. His enemies naturally include such members of the party as are susceptible to railway influence, as well as the large number of Republicans who for other reasons object to Mr. LaFollette's iron rule. A powerful effort was made to defeat his renomination this year. The convention at Madison, on May 19, was made to possess a majority of LaFollette delegates by the action of the state central committee, which LaFollette controls, in seating eighty-five men friendly to the governor in the face of contests by his opponents. This action caused a bolt of the supporters of Judge Emil Baensch and Samuel A. Cook. The LaFollette delegates, numbering 585 out of a total of 1,065, thereupon nominated the governor for a third term. The opposition delegates also held a convention and nominated Mr. Cook for governor. To prevent the bolt from endangering the national ticket in Wisconsin, the electors at large nominated by the LaFollette convention were also nominated by the Cook convention. However, the Wisconsin law prohibits the placing of any name twice on a ballot, so that a difficulty still exists. Senators Spooner and Quarles, Congressman Babcock and other influential men of the party, have joined in the movement to defeat LaFollette. The probable outcome seems to be the election of the Democratic state ticket.

Illinois Gubernatorial Campaign

The contest for the Republican nomination for governor in Illinois was one of the most exciting in recent state politics. Instead of the usual situation of two strong candidates the real fight was three-cornered, while the lesser men held on to their delegations until the very end with extraordinary persistency. Richard Yates, the present governor, sought a renomination. He had alienated one faction of the Republican machine by various acts of his administration, and had earned the enmity of Cook County. The group of leaders headed by Representative William Lorimer, which has long held sway over Republican affairs in Chicago until several recent interruptions of its power, championed the cause of Frank O. Low-

FRANK O. LOWDEN

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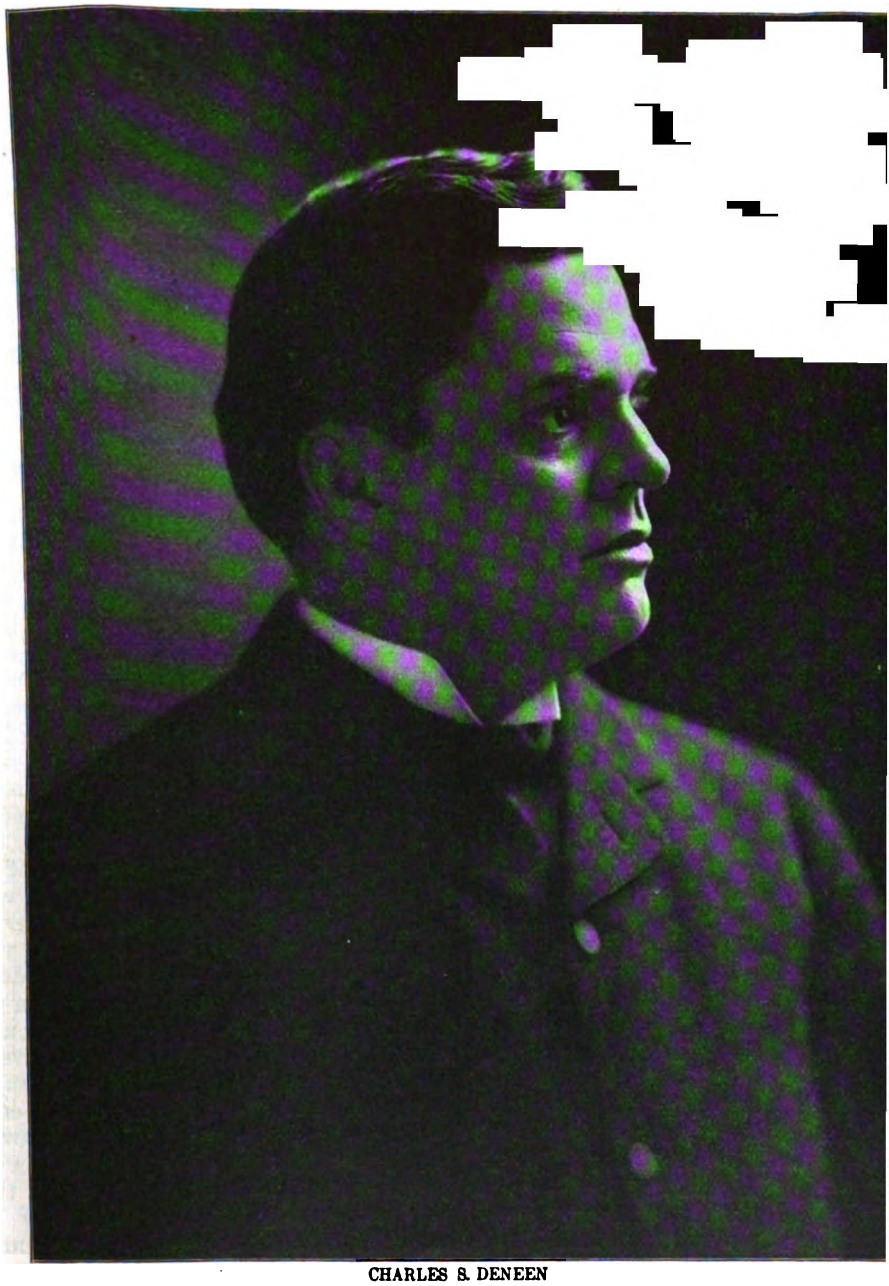

CHARLES S. DENEEN

den. The independent Republicans of Cook County supported Charles S. Deneen, who as state's attorney has won an enviable reputation in the punishment of criminals and the exposure of bribing and other evils. In addition to these three there were four other candidates. The convention met at Springfield May 12 and cast seventy-nine ballots before reaching a decision. Governor then reached a compromise with neen leaders and transferred his the Chicago independent, who w nominated by a vote of 957 to Lowden. This means that for t time in decades the state will have cago governor. The city may t allowed a new and more liberal

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Industry and Commerce

Money and Business

Money is plentiful in the financial centers of the country. This means, among other things, that business is slack. Iron and steel manufactures have fallen off enormously. There has been a slowing down in many directions. Thus it comes about that the manufacturers generally are not seeking heavy loans with which to buy material and employ labor to prepare finished products for the market. Another proof of slack business is found in the present condition of the coal trade. The fires have gone out in many manufactories or at least they have been drawn under many boilers that were furnishing all the steam they could a year or two ago. The railroads have felt the change. All of them have been discharging men. Some of the great systems, like the Pennsylvania and the New York Central, have stricken many thousands of names from their pay-rolls. The freight departments, which in recent years could not handle all the business that was offered to them, though they put forth their best efforts, are reducing their forces more rapidly than at any other time since 1893. There is no longer a "car famine." The prospects of heavy passenger traffic, due to the World's Fair at St. Louis and the usual summer holiday travel, can not make up for the heavy decrease in freight traffic. Even the prospects of fair crops do not prevent uneasiness in some quarters as to the chances of a reduction in dividends or a pinch in interest payments.

What is the Matter?

The nation is weary. "Boom times" have been succeeded by some degree of lassitude. Prices of commodities have gone so high that manufacturers in various lines have failed to keep their hold on the foreign market. We hear little now from European countries of the "American peril." Meanwhile manufacturers have sold freely and at a high profit in American markets. The cost of commodities has outstripped the rise in wages. Now the consumer has recoiled and gone to economizing that he may pay for costly beefsteak and other dear necessities of life. Economy by the masses means the slowing down of industries. Then there are the strikes. The great building industries and some others are unusually free from labor disturbances this season, but the vessel masters and pilots caused an almost complete suspension of freight traffic on the Great Lakes early in May, throwing out of employment for weeks about one hundred thousand men. Various minor strikes have added to the loss of wages, which means a loss in consuming power. This slowing down process is expected to last several months. The midsummer dulness is at hand. Then follows the national political canvass, which always disturbs business seriously. What the country needs is lower prices of commodities to stimulate increased consumption and make the poor man's dollar go farther in purchasing necessities for his family. Since this would bring smaller profits, will the various associations which now regulate prices consent to lower them? Or will they close down factories and keep up profits on a smaller output? If the latter expedient shall be applied by the many combines which control great industries, there is danger of artificial hard times.

Heavy Exports of Gold

This nation has now a volume of currency equal to about $32 per capita, which marks an enormous growth during the last few years. It lost by export during April and May about $55,000,000 in gold. Nobody cared particularly, though a few old-fashioned financiers felt a shiver at the thought of what convulsions such a withdrawal of gold would have caused ten years ago. But even Gresham's law has lost its ominous meaning in the light of the solid condition of the national treasury and the huge production of gold which goes on yearly at American mines. In the first place, the United States paid $40,000,000 to the French Panama Canal Company for its assets. Most of this money went to Paris in the shape of gold coin or gold bars. Part of the $10,000,000 paid to the republic of Panama went abroad also. Then Japan sent more than $20,000,000 to this country, much of which was transshipped to Europe, to pay for war supplies. French bankers who financed a great Russian loan got much

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of their gold from the United States, thus satisfying the Czar's desire for that metal, which he needs to pay the cost of the war in Manchuria. Furthermore, Americans have been making foreign investments, including large purchases of Japanese and Russian war bonds, and have paid for them partially in gold. Doubtless if we had a more elastic currency, we should not have lost so much gold, since idle bank notes would have been retired and bank reserves then would have required more of the yellow coin. It is pleasant to know, at least, that no harm has come of the shipments, the nation having reached a point of financial stability which places it above peril from any present manifestations of that formerly dreaded phenomenon, a "drain of gold." The United States produces gold much as it produces wheat and cotton; it has a vast surplus to dispose of abroad if it is offered good values in return.

Prices High and Steady

In the hearings before the Interstate Commerce Commission which Mr. Hearst has brought about through a decision of the United States Supreme Court requiring the witnesses to testify, presidents of the anthracite coal roads have told why the price of anthracite is high. The reasons which they give are sometimes rather offensively stated, but they may be applied also to the prices of various other commodities. George F. Baer, the head of the so-called anthracite trust, declared that his company could sell all the coal it produced at the price charged and that his company and the others would not be good merchants if they voluntarily lowered the price. The uniform rate was, he insisted, a matter of mere business cleverness, not of collusion. The coal company of which he was president required to make $5,000,000 a year in order to pay four per cent on its stock and until it could bring this about there was no likelihood of its lowering prices. According to this testimony and the testimony of other coal road presidents, not to mention the evidence of contracts whereby the coal roads guarantee the bonds of the Temple Iron Company, the coal-selling concern, there is not and can not be under present conditions any real competition in the anthracite coal trade. President Thomas, of the Lehigh Valley Railroad, declared before the commission that anthracite coal was not a necessity, but a luxury, since the public could burn cheaper fuel if it would. The same might be said with equal truth about any article of common use for which an inferior substitute could be secured at less cost. Many such articles are controlled by associations of producers which regulate prices and eliminate competition. The public pays roundly for the excellent understanding which has come to exist among packers and cold storage men, milk dealers and ice dealers, to mention no others. Having to bear these added burdens, the public must economize wherever it can. With competition as good as eliminated, will lower prices come with reduced consumption? Just here the farsightedness of the industrial combine is to meet its severest test. High prices and rhetorical insolence are dangerous partners.

In the Labor Market

A very unusual thing is reported by the Atlantic steamship companies. Here at the beginning of summer, when work is supposed to be more plentiful than at other times of the year, the cost of living being cheaper also than at other seasons, steerage passages to Europe are in strong demand. Immigrants are still coming in large numbers, but emigration has greatly increased. One may suppose that foreigners who have enjoyed good wages during the busy years that have gone by and who now find work growing scarce for them choose to return to their native lands with their savings, where they can live in comfort for a mere fragment of the cost that American conditions demand. This departure of laborers helps in a measure to neutralize the coming of new shiploads of workers and the reduction of forces in factories and on railways. That discharges rather than reductions of wages have characterized the change in industrial conditions, except in the bituminous coal mines and a few other lines of employment, seems to indicate that prices of commodities are to be maintained on a lowered output, though dread of strikes naturally works against any cut in wages which can not be satisfactorily explained to the interested unions.

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Education

The University of Wisconsin Jubilee

Fifty years ago this June the first class was graduated from the small building which was then the University of Wisconsin. This event was made the occasion of a great jubilee, beginning June 4, to which the leading educational institutions throughout the world sent delegates. The formal inauguration of President Van Hise added solemnity to this notable occasion. State universities have sometimes had a hard time in this country. The appropriations for education have been treated like river and harbor bills. Every section tries to get some particular school or building. In Iowa, Ohio, Georgia and many other states the different schools of the universities are spread broadcast. Wisconsin University has been singularly fortunate in having all its colleges together. It had its trial in the early days, when nearly every attempt to increase its powers or better its financial condition met with determined and jealous opposition. But the people of Wisconsin present a worthy mixture of German, Yankee and Scandinavian; they are shrewd and far-sighted, and the university safely passed the danger line. Its appropriation has been steadily increased; it has pushed forward with giant strides; it has grown into the hearts of the people. Now nothing will stir the state more than the bare idea that politics may be brought into the university. In this state the university stands supreme and untainted by politics, sectionalism and religious prejudice. Its location is almost ideal. Wisconsin ranks high among the universities of the country. Its historical department, together with the resources of the Historical Society, make it one of the two or three best schools for the study of American history to-day. The Justin Winsor prize, offered by the American Historical Society for the best manuscript upon American history, has been won five times, three times by students

UNIVERSITY HALL, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

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connected with the University of Wisconsin. In Dr. Richard T. Ely the university has one of the leading students of American economic and social problems. With Professor John R. Commons he has just begun a great American industrial investigation. In political science, in the school of commerce, in its practical geological and engineering discoveries—everywhere, the university shows the impulse of American genius. In this connection must be mentioned the work in agriculture. It has the best agricultural experiment station in the country. Its discoveries in dairying, in buttermaking and cheesemaking have enriched the whole world. The Babcock test for butter fats alone saves a million dollars a year to the state. To-day the short courses for practical farmers are crowded with men who go back to the farm and apply at once what they have been taught by thinkers like Dean Henry and Babcock at the Madison school.

The Religious World

The Presbyterian Assemblies

May was a great month this year for religious conventions. It happened that several of the leading denominations had important subjects to decide, and this gave unusual interest to their assemblies. This was particularly the case with the Presbyterians and the Methodists. The Northern Presbyterians met at Buffalo during the latter half of the month, while the sister bodies with which union is proposed were in session in the South—the Southern Presbyterians in Mobile, the Cumberland Presbyterians in Dallas. The question of union with the Cumberland Presbyterians on the basis of terms already arranged by a committee was warmly debated at Buffalo. It became evident early in the assembly that unanimity was impossible. A strong minority of conservatives, led by President F. L. Patton, of Princeton Theological Seminary, stood out to the last against union, though the number of votes finally cast in the negative was small. In this, as in all matters of doctrine, the Princeton men stand against any change of the existing standards of the church. They deny that the revision of the Westminster Confession effected last year is sufficient to bring it into harmony with the teaching of the Cumberland Presbyterians on the subject of election, which Dr. Patton calls Arminian. To admit the Cumberland body, said he, "would give us a comprehensive faith," which he meant as a term of the most severe opprobrium. When it became evident that the majority was not afraid of a "comprehensive faith," the conservatives tried to attach to the resolutions a declaration that would practically deprive them of force, but this effort failed. Another question at issue was the proposed establishment of separate negro presbyteries as part of the plan of union. When it was made clear that this did not involve compulsory expulsion of negro churches from the white presbyteries, but only a permissive provision designed to secure harmony, this opposition was almost wholly withdrawn. The decisive vote on the question of union was large and enthusiastic. The Cumberland Presbyterians likewise ratified the action of the union committee. The matter now goes to the presbyteries for vote, which will consume considerable time, but which can scarcely affect the final result. Negotiations with the Southern Church and with the Reformed Church are at a somewhat less advanced stage, but it is safe to say that a very few years will see the combination of all, or nearly all the denominations which practice the presbyterial form of government into a single great church. Probably the bridge between North and South will be bridged sooner in this group of denominations than among the Methodists and Baptists, who show no signs as yet of organic reunion.

The Methodist General Conference

The Methodists at Los Angeles had several matters of the first importance to decide. One of these was the question of the bishops. Two vacancies by death and a third by resignation were to be filled. In addition to these it was recommended and decided that five other bishops over seventy years of age should be retired. These five included at least two, Bishops Vincent and Foss, who are by no means lacking in vigor of body or mind,

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and whose friends were surprised by the action of the conference. It was thought best, however, to show no partiality, and by the establishment of an invariable age limit for retirement to guard against the recurrence of a condition which has sometimes existed wherein most of the bishops have been men far beyond the prime of life, including some actually decrepit. The eight new bishops just elected are as follows: Dr. Joseph F. Berry, editor of *The Epworth Herald;* Dr. W. F. McDowell, secretary of the Education Society; Dr. Henry Spellmyer, of Newark, New Jersey; President J. W. Bashford, of Ohio Wesleyan University; Dr. William Burt, of Rome, superintendent of the Italian Mission; Dr. T. B. Neely, editor of the Sunday school literature of the Church; Dr. Luther B. Wilson, of Baltimore, and Chancellor James R. Day, of Syracuse University. Dr. Day, however, declined the position to which he was elected. Among the important acts of the conference was the vote to retain the existing prohibition of certain worldly amusements; to take steps toward the consolidation of the benevolent societies, and to combine the two large publishing concerns; a refusal to restore the time limit upon the length of pastorates. It is believed that all these changes are in the direction of increased efficiency, and they represent a notable triumph of the progressive element among laymen and the religious press against the conservatism of officeholders who, for obvious reasons, dislike change.

BISHOP JOSEPH F. BERRY

Baptist Conservatism and Progress

The Baptists, having begun earlier than the Methodists a movement for various economies of money and effort in their denominational missionary enterprises and for a greater representation of the laity in the annual meetings, have made much less progress in this direction. Owing to powerful pressure from certain conservative forces controlling the management of the societies, all efforts toward unification of missions have been resisted, and such slight advance as has been made is merely a provision for settling controversies between societies without friction. It is true that the Baptists have not so much consolidating to do as the Methodists, who have two publishing societies, or the Congregationalists, who have six missionary boards to the Baptists' three. But little change is evident from year to year in the methods pursued, the funds raised, or the results secured. At the Northern Baptist meetings held this year in Cleveland the increase of funds over the figures of recent years was due chiefly to legacies. The significant features of these meetings were two: the holding of a single session which was intended to represent the denomination at large, instead of the constituency of any one society; and the announcement of a new educational policy for the foreign missions. The importance of the former incident depends upon denominational history, which shows a people passionately devoted to individualism. Of course as the denominational enterprises have grown, certain episcopal and presbyterial powers have been unconsciously and inevitably assumed by missionary superintendents and executive committees, and every advance in the volume and the efficiency of the Baptist organizations has been brought about by individuals and boards of broad views who accepted the task of leadership without

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too curious inquiry into the theoretical question of scriptural precedent for the authority they exercised. The tendency now is to call a halt on this natural evolution of new machinery to do the work of the new era. The union meeting held at Cleveland was an example of the more progressive spirit which is likely to triumph, though slowly, over ultra-conservative sentiment.

A Crisis in the Y. M. C. A. Safely Past

A remarkable illustration was given at the International Y. M. C. A. Convention at Buffalo of the capacity of that great religious organization to compose sharp internal differences of opinion, and, after vehement debate, still to present to the world a united front. In no ecclesiastical assemblage of recent years has there been so noteworthy a debate issuing in a conclusion accepted by all parties. The point at issue was the degree of power that should be committed to the international committee, which has its headquarters in New York, as over against state executive committees and local associations. During the past few years friction has been developing, due to the remarkable growth and expansion of the association the country over. While the local associations have been confining themselves largely to varied forms of work among young men of all classes attracted to their buildings, the international committee has been specializing with railroad men, college students, soldiers in the army and sailors in the navy, and latterly it has been meeting with remarkable success in establishing its work in connection with great industrial plants. When the carrying of the report by a majority of three to one was announced there was no sign of triumph on the faces of the victors and no murmurs of discontent from the defeated party. The international committee will have new prestige as a result of the decision. It is to-day one of the most powerful and closely articulated organizations in Christendom. Through its fifty or sixty secretaries and its large number of workers it is able to keep its hand on association work all over the world and to watch and aid progress in all the newer branches like the army and navy, colleges and industrial organizations. It spent last year in connection with its work of supervision nearly $250,000, a far larger sum than any of our great denominational missionary societies spend for administrative expenses, and fully a third of this went to the work in the foreign field.

The Pope and American Liberals

The action of the Pope in ordering certain radical changes in the Catholic University at Washington has surprised American Roman Catholics, who believed that his policy toward this country would be at least as liberal as that of his predecessor. He is reported to have forbidden the introduction of collegiate courses planned by the faculty of the institution, which has hitherto been chiefly or entirely a graduate school for students for the priesthood. He also prohibited the employment of non-Catholic instructors. Several eminent Washington scholars of Protestant faith have heretofore given part of their time to lecturing at the university, adding to the prestige of the school and its reputation for tolerance. This university and the Jesuit school at Georgetown a few miles away represent two widely differing types of American Catholicism; the one holding, at least in theory, the principles of scientific and philosophical education accepted in the leading non-sectarian institutions, the other standing for the old classical discipline and the system of Thomas Aquinas as the only proper training for youth. The one embodies the possibilities of the future, the other maintains the traditions of the past. This is not equivalent to saying that either is in any way disloyal to Catholic principles; but there has been and is a party both in America and at Rome which looks with suspicion upon the more liberal institution and discourages its hospitality toward evolutionary science and similar doubtful causes. The question is whether, by a narrowing of its field, by the appointment of unsympathetic apostolic delegates to Washington and by other methods the growth of the liberal party in the American church is to be retarded. If this is to be the case, it will probably be due, not to the Pope himself, but to certain of his advisers. He seems to be somewhat under the influence of prelates who do not understand America.

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GROOT SCHUUR, NEAR CAPE TOWN, THE HOME OF THE LATE CECIL RHODES
Given by him to the Government for the use of the Premier

SOUTH AFRICA TO-DAY

BY

W. T. STEAD

EDITOR OF THE "REVIEW OF REVIEWS"

IN communicating my impressions of South Africa of to-day I make no claim that this is other than a bird's-eye view of a vast territory into which I dipped for a couple of months at the beginning of this year. I arrived at Cape Town at the beginning of March, and embarked for England in the third week of April. I spent, therefore, little more than six weeks in the country. I did not see Lord Milner, the High Commissioner, but with that exception I had an opportunity of meeting nearly every one else who counts for anything in the Cape Colony, the Orange Free State and the South African Republic, which is now known as the Transvaal Colony. I did not visit Natal nor Rhodesia. As my visit was primarily undertaken for the purpose of recovering health, it was in no way a travel tour, but it enabled me to come in personal contact with South Africa and South Africans. It was my first visit to the country, but I sincerely hope it will not be my last.

South Africa, when the turbine steamers reduce the journey from London to Cape Town to ten days, will be one of the great health resorts of Europe. The Cape Peninsula is an African Riviera with a better climate, and a far more bracing sea, than that of the Mediterranean, for from the southern extremity of that peninsula the ocean stretches without break of land to the Antarctic pole. Of course, there are seasons when South Africa is not exactly a health resort, when the sun is too hot for comfort, and, again, in certain districts, when the rain is incessant, but when I was there the climate was per-

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fection—bright sun by day, which was not too warm, a sky which was wonderfully clear and blue, and evenings and mornings which were delightfully fresh.

The first impression produced upon me on this my first visit to the country was surprise that the natural beauty of the region in the heart of which Cape Town stands has never been adequately appreciated. The general impression was that Table Mountain stood by itself, whereas Table Mountain is but the center of a great amphitheater of mountains, many of which in winter time are covered with snow. Travelers usually dwell so much upon the discomforts of travel that we are apt to imagine South Africa is a land of flies, lies and dust. No doubt it is prolific in all three, but it is ridiculous to allow these disadvantages to obscure the great natural beauty of its landscape.

South Africa will not only be one of the playgrounds and pleasure resorts of the world, but it is becoming every year one of the greatest fruit gardens in the eastern hemisphere. It has long been famous for its vines, but it was only the other day that the Cape farmers applied themselves seriously to the production of grapes for the London market, nor is it only grapes in which South Africa seems destined to outrival all competitors at Covent Garden. The late Mr. Rhodes imported a great number of Californians trained in the fruit orchards of the Pacific Coast, and gave them a free hand and practically unlimited money in order to develop the fruit farming of the colony. The enterprise has been very successful. This is not the only instance of the influence of the American mind upon the development of this British colony. The phylloxera has been playing havoc with the native vines, and the whole colony is being restocked with American vines, which are proof against phylloxera. According to experts who have visited all the wine-producing districts of the world, the Cape vines are destined in the near future to eclipse the vintages of all other countries. No wine-producing district has a climate superior to that of the Cape. The vines thrive amazingly, and experienced viticulturists declare that there is no description of wines that can not be produced in South Africa if sufficient attention is paid to the manufacture and storing.

It is possible that in her fruit South Africa may find the new source of wealth the discovery of which is about due, for there is always something new turning up in South Africa. It began with wool; after wool came ostriches; after ostriches, diamonds; after diamonds, gold; after gold there now promises to be copper, and who knows but fruit farming may rival the other well-established branches of industry in the elements which build up a prosperous South Africa.

South Africa was busily engaged taking its census on the last Sunday on which I was in the country. The figures which have been published in the Cape Colony show a great increase in the white population in the course of the last thirteen years. The total, which was 366,608 in 1891, is now 548,926. The figures as to the Orange Free State and the Transvaal have not yet been published. So far only the gross results have been telegraphed to this country. As to the point on which most people were waiting for information, namely, the comparative strength of the Dutch and British population, no information is as yet forthcoming. The increase in the number of the white population in the last ten years is very marked, and contrasts much with the lagging growth of the white population in Australia, where the falling off of the birthrate has been made the subject quite recently of an inquiry which has just issued its report. To a certain extent the increase in population may be attributed to the war and the enormous expenditure of British capital in the conduct of military operations, for money attracts population.

The great question which is raised by the war is one which will be settled not in battles, but by the birthrate. England spent £228,000,000 and put 450,000 armed men in battle array on South African soil, in order to assure the ascendency of the Briton over the Boer. That ascendency depends in the long run upon the comparative numbers of Britons and Boers in that war, and that again is determined by the comparative birthrate of the two races. It is in vain to attempt to counteract the operation of these natural forces by artificial emigration from the outside. With the exception of the eastern province, there is very little of the

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land of South Africa that is cultivated by men of British descent. Three-fourths, at least, of the land in South Africa is occupied, if not cultivated, by the Dutch. It is the country farmer who has the largest family, and brings up the healthiest boys and girls. The cities are great consumers of human life. Hence the odds would be heavily in favor of the future ascendency of the Dutch, even if there were no other elements telling in that direction; but there are other elements telling in that direction, among which the chief is the fact that the British population in the towns and the mining centers is more or less migratory, whereas the Dutchman remains where he was born. Hence the chief, if not the only, hope for the British Empire in South Africa lies in the conciliation of the Dutch. This task has been rendered enormously difficult by the war. Before the Jameson Raid the two races were amalgamating; intermarriage was going on, and the greater world outlook which is supplied by the English language rendered it absolutely certain that, while the future of South Africa would lie in the hands of a mixed race predominantly Dutch, its language would be English. This healthy natural process was rudely arrested by the infatuated attempt of the British Jingoes to assert their ascendency by physical force. It always seemed to me a mad idea, but never did I realize so much how absolutely crazy was such an appeal to force until I visited the country. As long as the rivalry of races is confined to the polling booth, the Briton has at least an even chance with the Boer, for the vote of a counter-jumper in Cape Town counts for as much in the polls as that of a Boer who farms his thousand acres in the back country. But the moment the arena is changed from the polling booth to the battlefield, then the South African Briton has no chance. If South Africa were cut off from the rest of the world, and the British South Africans had to depend solely upon their own resources without any possibility of obtaining reinforcements from Great Britain or from other parts of the British Empire, the struggle would be over before it began. The balance of fighting force is so overwhelmingly on the side of the Boers, that it is doubtful whether the British would even venture to challenge it. The net result of the Jingo mania of the last eight years has been to transfer the issue between Briton and Boer from the political to the military arena, and as that is one in which the Boer is absolutely predominant, unless the Briton is reinforced from outside, the action of the latter can only be attributed to the sheer infatuation which sometimes falls upon peoples.

Another regrettable result of the war is that the British colonists who pride themselves upon their loyalty confound loyalty with their own party predominance. They consider that the ascendency of the Briton, even if he is in a minority at the polls, is essential to the maintenance of the Empire. The result is that while they are well content to be left alone so long as they have a majority, the moment they are likely to be placed in a minority they consider they have a right to appeal to the support of their big brother with a big stick across the sea, who will enable them to keep the predominance which they persuade themselves is essential to the maintenance of the Empire. If any attempt were made by any Canadian or Australian party to carry on the government of the dominion or commonwealth on such lines, it would result in the disruption of the Empire. Even in England the stoutest Tories would become red-hot rebels in a very few years if Great Britain were to be handed over permanently to be governed by the Liberals. That turn-and-turn-about is fair play, that the Dutch are as much entitled to their innings as the British if they can secure a majority at the polls, and that a party which is always in opposition will of necessity gravitate toward disloyalty—these fundamental political propositions have not yet begun to dawn upon the minds of the British loyalists in South Africa.

It is this which constitutes the obstacle in the way of peace and conciliation in that country. Despite all the bitterness engendered by the war, the Boers are so tractable, so reasonable, so political in the right sense of the word, that they would acquiesce in their new status as British colonists if they were to be governed on what may be described as Canadian or Australian principles. The permanent menace to the peace of South Africa is the

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attempt to govern them upon British South African loyalist principles, which bear the same relation to the principles of government established in Canada and Australia as the system of Charles I. to the principles of the Long Parliament.

In the Cape Colony the burning political question of the moment is the attempt made by Dr. Jameson and his party to use their small majority of six, which they obtained at last election, chiefly through the disfranchisement of several thousand Dutch voters who had joined the republics in the war, in order to give additional seats to constituencies which are safe to return British partisans. By this means the majority of six would be converted into a majority of twelve in the Lower House, and a majority of one in the Legislative Council would be converted into a majority of four. There is no attempt on the part of Dr. Jameson to deny the fact that he is using the opportunity created by the temporary disfranchisement of the rebels—they will not all be back on the register in two years' time—in order to double his own party majority. When parties are driven to such straits, their maneuvers are eloquent of their despair. The natural forces dominating the situation in South Africa will not be arrested by gerrymandering bills of this description.

In what are called the "acquired territories," which were formerly the Orange Free State and the South African Republic, there are three questions very much to the front. The first is the deficit produced by Lord Milner's administration. The British administration is twice as costly and at least as corrupt as, and no more efficient than that which is replaced. Lord Milner borrowed £30,000,000 in order to set the republics on their legs, a great part of the money has been wasted, and the new colonies are face to face with a bad deficit. Besides this the bills for compensation due to the farmers whose stock we destroyed, represent an outlying claim of many millions, which must be met if all confidence in our good faith is not to be utterly destroyed, and which can not be met with the resources at present at the disposal of the treasury. The third question which is much debated is the introduction of Chinese labor into the gold mines. The mine-owners say that they want some seventy thousand extra hands with which to work the mines. They have at present about seventy thousand Kaffirs, and they wish to supplement these by seventy thousand Chinese. To introduce those Chinese without converting South Africa into a Chinese warren is the problem which has been exercising the attention of the employers of labor for some time. In order to disarm the opposition of the white workmen the Chinese are to be absolutely forbidden either to own land or to practice any trade or to do anything beyond the lowest manual labor in the mines. They are to be engaged for a period of three years, and then shipped back to their country, *nolens volens*. There seems to be no doubt as to the possibility of securing an adequate supply of coolie labor. What is much more doubtful is whether the coolies, when they come, will be able to stand the rigor of the Johannesburg winter. If Manchurian coolies were available, they might survive, but the coolies who are at present being recruited in the southern parts of China are certain to die like flies. An experienced railway contractor who has employed many thousand Chinese in his time estimates the probable mortality in the first winter at Johannesburg at sixty per cent, and in that case the first lot of Chinese will be the last lot and the question of repatriation will not arise.

On the whole, my impressions of South Africa are very pleasant, and my outlook for the future is hopeful—hopeful because I never realized before visiting the country that the troubles which we have had to experience in that country are almost entirely of our own creating. The old-time specific which has worked like a charm in so many other countries would be equally efficacious in South Africa. Liberty, justice, fair play, honesty and payment of our financial obligations, and a recognition of the right of the local population to govern itself, as freely as if it were an independent republic—if these principles are acted upon in South Africa, we shall have no serious trouble. If, on the other hand, we persist in identifying loyalty to the King with the ascendency of the British party in South Africa, we shall lose South Africa, and it will serve us right. For that, fortunately, there is no necessity.

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JOHN HEYL VINCENT

THE BISHOP OF THE DEMOCRACY OF CULTURE

THE recent action of the Methodist General Conference in placing Bishop John H. Vincent upon the retired list comes with a distinct shock. Despite the evidence of the calendar, Bishop Vincent can never be superannuated except in that technical sense which prevails in the Methodist Church. And in his case this amounts to hardly more than the recognition of the fact that he has reached the age when he can render better service in his study and the pulpit than on a railway train.

It is difficult to realize that Bishop Vincent has been constantly engaged in religious work for more than half a century. He was but eighteen years of age when he took up the work of preaching, first as a circuit rider, and then as pastor in various churches of the West. He served his denomination faithfully through the great storm and stress period of the Civil War. For sixteen years he was at the head of the Sunday school work in the Methodist Church, but his influence was felt far outside of his immediate religious connections. He was one of that little band of pioneers in religious education who revolutionized the Sunday school. The efficiency of the modern Sunday school is in no small degree due to him. Since 1888 he has been a bishop in different parts of the United States, and the last four years in charge of the European mission of his church with headquarters at Zurich.

There would have been a career in any one of these three periods of Bishop Vincent's life for most men. There are men living of high reputation who have accomplished less in a lifetime than did he in any one of them. But great as have been his services to his denomination, his national significance is greater. In early life circumstances compelled him to decide against taking a college course, and he educated himself. From this fact, doubtless, sprang much of that sympathy which he has always shown with those thousands of men and women who like himself were deprived opportunity for early study. Thirty years ago, with Lewis Miller, he undertook in some way to meet this great need of the American people. The Chautauqua Assembly was the result. Middle-aged people remember when the word was new. Four years later, not content with a local institution, he established the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, in which hundreds of thousands have already been enrolled and whose influence in democratizing culture has been unparalleled. The grandchildren of its first students are now following its courses. Through all the twenty-six years of its life he has been its Chancellor. It is this, even more than his achievement as a churchman, that has made him known and loved from ocean to ocean.

The incessant activity which these bald facts imply is only one of Bishop Vincent's characteristics. Cautious, yet liberal; sagacious, yet singularly idealistic; a natural aristocrat, yet the truest friend of the masses, he is singularly cosmopolitan. He has been honored in the pioneer's cabin and in the halls of Harvard. He has been a cautiously liberalizing influence in a great church. He is an orator of singular simplicity and grace. He is an educator in the truest sense of the word.

He may have ceased to be active as a bishop in the Methodist Church, but as no other man ever has been or is likely to be, he will continue to be the Bishop of the People.

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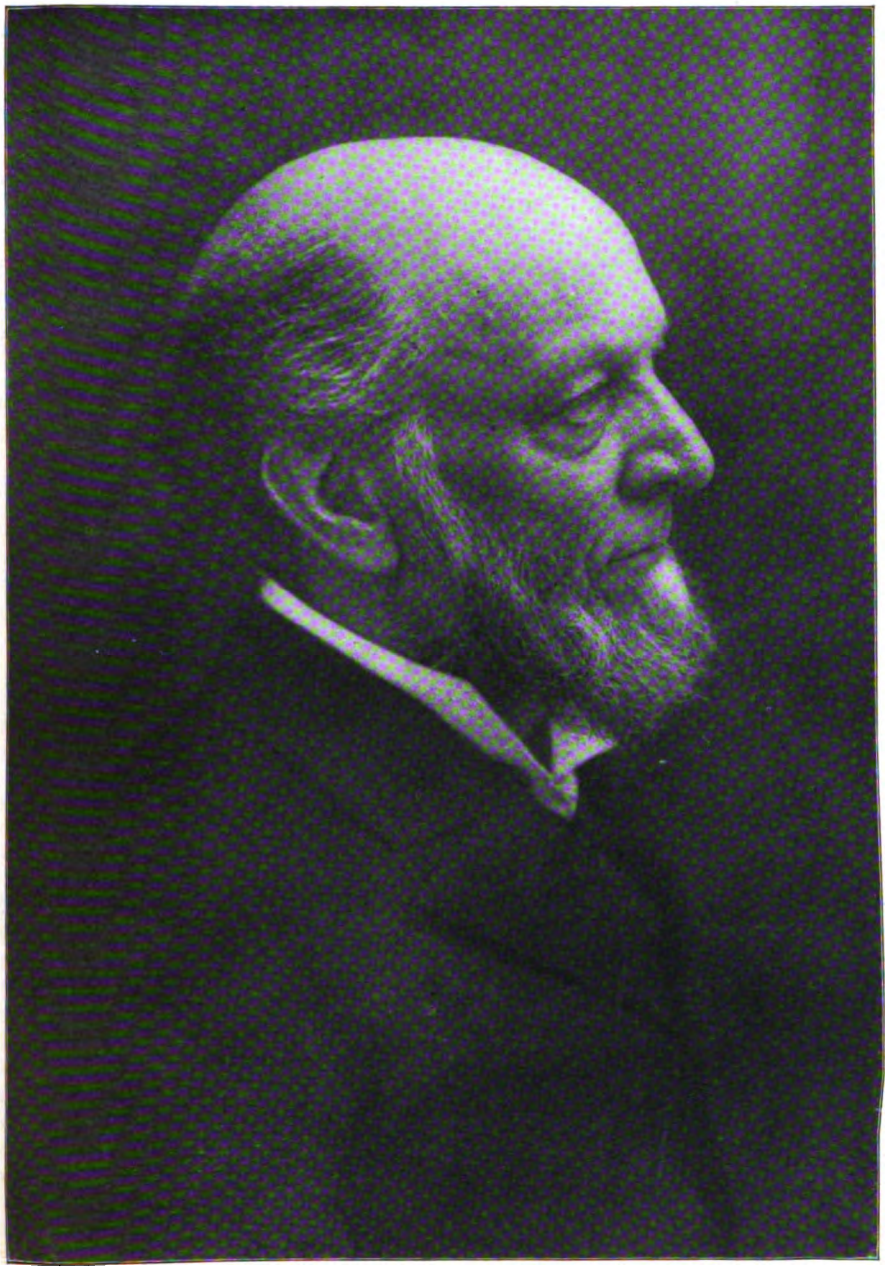

BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT
Retired by the Methodist General Conference in May

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WHERE THE COUNTRY JOINS THE TOWN

A LOVER of quiet woods and placid waters need not travel a day's journey for a breath of nature in midsummer. It is the fashion now to make much of city parks as a solace for the multitudes who never "take a vacation." And indeed the best parks do offer many nooks and unfrequented byways where the stroller may take refuge from the noise of the trolleys and the flaming horrors of the billboards. But if one cares for mosses and ferns and brooks, for all that the city child calls the "real country," one must leave the town and travel a few miles away from real estate signs and plank sidewalks. Not far—even if one lives in Chicago. The natural beauties of the country near Chicago are as yet known to but a few thousands of the city's millions. The crowds pass by to the large picnic grounds on the railroad lines; the most of the nature-loving people of leisure go to Wisconsin or Michigan for a sight of the woods, supposing that there is no country west or south of Chicago except bare, wind-blown prairie and sand-barrens. In the following pages are shown a few forest and water scenes, all within an hour's ride of the downtown district, where trees and wild flowers are at their best, where the artist may find inspiration and the weary city-dweller may find refreshment and calm. Some far-sighted members of the park boards are already planning for an outer chain of suburban parks which shall occupy some of the eligible sites still unspoiled by the invading real estate agent. If the effort succeeds, Chicago may in time regain its lost place near the head of American cities in the matter of park area. The first essential is that the people shall be roused to the opportunity that now exists for saving the rural beauty that still remains. In a few years it will be too late.

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A BICYCLE PATH NEAR RIVERSIDE

Strolling through the woods, with the sunlight sifting through the leaves upon the vines and ferns along the bank, one forgets that the town is near and the highway within a few minutes' walk

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SALT CREEK, NEAR RIVERSIDE
A quiet spot where the rural illusion is perfect

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BLUFFS ALONG THE NORTH SHORE

Stretching for more than thirty miles along the lake shore, the water front of Chicago has some fine beaches. Almost anywhere one can see the smoke of factories and mills, and the picture depends chiefly on its shifting colors for beauty

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A PERFECT TREE

Looming grandly up in the midst of the fields one often finds a tree of such symmetry and rounded contour as are seldom found in groves

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THE BROOK

With Lake Michigan always in sight from his office windows, the business man still finds irresistible attractions in a bit of a stream trickling over mossy stones through the woods, even if there are no fish in it; even if he knows the prosaic destiny of that rivulet to be ultimate absorption into the drainage canal. A pool, a fallen log, a tiny waterfall, these are enough to set a man to dreaming of boyhood days.

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RECENT DISCOVERIES IN THE ROMAN FORUM

BY

RAFFAELLE SIMBOLI

THE Forum is naturally the first place to be visited by the stranger in Rome. The comprehensive view from the Capitol, embracing so many glorious relics, is always impressive, and, at the same time, one of the most inspiring in the world. Roman history in its entirety lies before you in half a square mile, and, to quote Goethe, "all that hitherto was hearsay and tradition here becomes instinct with life." Every stone, every ornament, every fragment of broken pottery teems with memories of that past which is gradually being revealed to us by continuous archaeological effort; and in this respect wonders are being performed by the explorer's faithful friend, the spade, in bringing to light the customs of ancient Rome, its origin, and traces of the subsequent development of its power.

Prior to 1893 very little, indeed almost no excavating had been done in the Forum. Under the Hon. Guido Baccelli some first steps were taken, the work continuing without interruption until 1896, when it was suspended for two years, while authorities on these matters gave vent to their rival hypotheses in a lively manner. In 1898 the excavations were recommenced and are still pursued with keen interest.

It would be impossible in a few pages to give a detailed account of all the discoveries made up to the present day; we must therefore limit ourselves to mentioning the most noteworthy.

The worship of Vesta dates back from the times which tradition assigns to Romulus, and many religious ceremonies, among them those connected with the maintenance of the sacred fire, are due to Numa Pompilius. The House of the Vestals was founded under the early kings. These priestesses were originally four in number and later seven. They were chosen by lot from among twenty patrician maidens, and were on duty for thirty years, as novices for the first ten, as effective servants of the temple for ten more and as teachers for the last ten. They were all subservient to the eldest, called the High Vestal, and had charge of the ever-burning fire, symbol of civic welfare. The Vestal virgins, moreover, enjoyed the first seats at public festivals and were always preceded by a lictor. Any one of them proved unchaste was buried alive, but very few were ever punished in all the eleven centuries through which the institution lasted.

The remains of the House of the Vestals consist of the ruins of the Atrium—a vast, rectangular courtyard, two large basins, recently discovered, in which rain water was preserved, spring or river water being forbidden; near by a suite of rooms in which the Vestals kept important documents, wills, mementoes of their native place, genealogical trees, etc. Statues of famous Vestals were ranged around the portico, on the spot where a decisive battle took place consequent on the rape of the Sabine women, after which, peace being made, the Forum became a public meeting place for the citizens of the Quirinal and Palatine.

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STATUES OF THE MOST FAMOUS VESTALS

ALTAR OF JULIUS CAESAR

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ENTRANCE TO THE REGIA

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Close to the House of the Vestals is the Regia or residence of the High Pontiff. Here Julius Caesar spent his last days. On March 15, 45 B. C., he betook himself to the Senate, oppressed by gloomy presentiments caused by a dream of his wife's, and only a few hours later his body was brought back by four slaves. A funeral pyre was raised the day following in front of the orators' tribune, and women threw their veils upon it. The freedmen of Caesar's household gathered up his ashes and carried them by night to the magnificent burying place of the Gens Julia. A temple was raised on the spot where his body was burnt, forty-two years before Christ, and in it a beautiful column of white marble, surmounted by a small altar, upon which Caesar's partisans were wont to offer sacrifice to his shade. It is a stately ruin, recalling the formidable empire that made a new era for Rome.

After the House of the Vestals, the Regia and Caesar's altar, the Sanctuary and spring of Juturna were brought to light. This little temple is adorned on the front with two exquisite marble pillars supporting an architrave with the name of the divinity carved upon it. The spring, whose water is ever clear and fresh, was reached by a wide stairway, and here, according to tradition, Castor and Pollux, who brought tidings to Rome of the victory at Tusculum, halted to water their horses. Castor and Pollux were famous in Greek mythology for their mutual attachment; they were transported by Zeus to heaven, where they formed the constellation Gemini, in which one star rises as the other sets. The great Twin Brethren or sons of Jove (Dioscuri) were greatly venerated by the Romans. A beautiful marble altar, with their twin heads and those of Jupiter, Diana and Leda in relief, was found in this fountain; also a marble statue in excellent preservation, and a fine horse's head, very praiseworthy work by a Greek artist of the fifth century, B. C., belonging to the group of Castor and Pollux with their horses. Lastly, a statue to Esculapius, the healthgiver, was discovered, mounting guard over the spring (for Romans had a real veneration for water), and traces of public offices, called Statio Aquarum,

TEMPLE OF JUTURNA, WITH STATUES OF ESCULAPIUS AND CASTOR AND POLLUX

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THE ROMAN PRISONS

regulating the distribution of water throughout the city.

The later excavations have brought the church of Santa Maria Antiqua to light, but its origin is so shrouded in uncertainty that archeologists are not yet unanimous on the name even. Its fine architecture, valuable paintings, marbles and decorations render this discovery of inestimable importance. The paintings, representing portions of Old and New Testament history, are held by all to be fine specimens of art in the transition period.

This brings us to the very recent excavations, which are of remarkable value. A prison house has been unearthed almost entire, consisting of narrow passages leading to small vaulted cells with brick floors. The building is still very solid in all its parts, showing evidence here and there of the precautions the ancients took to prevent the escape of prisoners. The dividing walls of the cells are very thick and strengthened by massive slabs of travertine, those near the cloaca of Augustus, through which prisoners might possibly have fled, being of enormous size.

A really admirable work of drainage, due to the director of the explorations, has been executed in the Forum within the last few months. When the Tiber happens to be very high, the Forum is always full of water; a new and attractive spectacle to foreigners but not to such as realize how seriously the deposits left by the receding waters are liable to injure the monuments. All danger of overflow has now been avoided by establishing a connection between the drains of the Forum and the great city sewer.

While digging for this purpose, the workmen discovered another drain, smaller than the Cloaca Maxima, built by the Tarquins. It is lined with blocks of tufa, worn away at intervals by the water, but otherwise in as good condition as it was twenty-five centuries ago. Fragments of antique pottery and bones of burnt animals from the sacrifices were found in this cloaca, some of the vases bearing inscriptions in Greek and Etruscan characters. It is thus evident that the Romans had excellent methods for drainage and the removal of offal. Plautus has a lengthy passage on the subject

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INTERIOR OF CHURCH OF ST. MARY THE ANTIQUE

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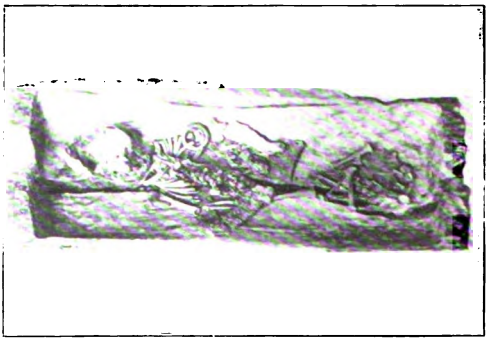
INTERIOR OF THE CLOACA
Formerly thought to be the Maxima

in his description of the Forum. The Cloaca Maxima, or the one which goes by that name, is, according to Signor Boni, a work of early imperial days, to judge by the material of which it is built.

Other excavations not yet completed concern the rostra and the tombs. The rostra or tribunes of the orators were surrounded by magnificent statuary and commemorative inscriptions, the most noteworthy being a naval column erected in honor of Duilius, after his victory in the first Punic War. The tombs which came to light only a few weeks since are of the highest historical importance. Twenty-three of these are situated in a locality supposed to be of a date prior to Romulus, and form a veritable burying-ground. The tombs hitherto laid bare are of two kinds, one suitable for the interment of a body, the other for the preservation of cremated remains. The former are rectangular holes, large enough to contain a sarcophagus—usually a wooden one, but more seldom of tufa—within which the personal ornaments of the dead were laid. The crematory tombs are circular in shape, like a small hole, at the bottom of which is an urn containing the ashes from the funeral pyre. The former kind of tomb disappeared between the fifth and sixth centuries of the Christian era, and was replaced by small chambers, where two bodies—usually those of man and wife—were laid, together with the crockery required for the meal of the dead. The walls were often richly adorned with paintings. The custom of family vaults came in later, the poor still keeping to their crematory tombs. The larger kind is frequently in the shape of a small hut, with walls and covering of tufa, and is the older manner of burial. In one of them eight splendid vases were found, but no trace of food for the dead, so usual in the ancient rites; they probably contained milk, water, honey and perfume. An oak log was found at the bottom of the grave, one and one-fifth meters long, split in two by the aid of wedges and hollowed out like a canoe, so as to form a covered coffin. Inside was the body of a child little more than two years old. When the encrusted soil was removed, woody fibers in the dark oak were perfectly distin-

VASES FOUND IN A VERY ANCIENT TOMB



TRUNK OF AN OAK CONTAINING SKELETON OF A BABY

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guishable. The earthenware vases are of very fine workmanship and beautifully smooth.

In other tombs, hip bones fractured by an ax were found; large beads, a piece of a ring, some bronze objects, a small amber disk, and even a bracelet and combs of ivory, taken perhaps from the elephants which must once have existed in Sicily, to judge by the bones and tusks found in the caves. Fishbones were also found, and an iron implement, such as Cato mentions as being used in eating hot and greasy food. Grains of rye, too, used in making the finest bread appropriated, according to Juvenal, to the service of the divinity, and small worm-eaten raisins. We know that the vine was cultivated in Latium from very early times.

These tombs closely resemble the very ancient ones in the Alban Hills, which tradition says were overrun by the founders of Rome. According to Signor Boni, these may date back two thousand years before Christ, and constitute a link with the most remote epoch of history known. Such conclusions may seem far-fetched to those who are not acquainted with Signor Boni, an extraordinary man, who seems to live only for the Forum. He knows the old writings, and can tell dates, minute particulars and strange legends in plenty. He has already given five years of slow and arduous investigation to the wonderful pages of the stratified volume laid open in the Forum. When his own knowledge comes short, he has recourse to specialists, and after painstaking examinations and comparisons, may be induced to tell his conclusions, but rarely to write them. It is a misfortune that he should not be successful in this line, but such is his familiarity with the classics that he writes like a Varro or a Livy, and only a few can grasp his meaning. He is patient and active at the same time, with methods of his own in excavating. Before commencing operations in the Sepulcretum, for example, he was determined to know exactly where to open up the ground, and poured water over the site, judging that the tombs must lie where most water was absorbed. He used fine jets of water, moreover, to remove the soil with which the said tombs were encrusted, where more violent means would have been fatal to his purpose. The history of Italian origins has yet many secrets to unfold.

THE ALTAR OF VULCAN

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MAURUS JOKAI
The great Hungarian novelist, who died May 6, 1904

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MAURUS JOKAI

BY

SIGMUND KRAUSZ

THE death of Maurus Jokai, Hungary's great poet and romancer, has removed an important and picturesque figure from the field of international literature. Although he belonged to a numerically small nation, and wrote in a language read and spoken only by a few millions of people, the numerous translations of his works have made his name known over the civilized world. Nevertheless he has not been as fully appreciated as if the medium of his thoughts had been English, French or German. In that case his fame would have undoubtedly equaled that of Sir Walter Scott or Alexander Dumas père.

In America only a comparatively small number of readers are familiar with the name of this author, from whose prolific pen have come more than three hundred volumes during a literary activity of nearly sixty years. But those who have read some of his remarkable productions have certainly not failed to recognize the great genius which sparkles from every sentence, from every line.

Jokai was the idol of his nation, and at the time of the fiftieth anniversary of his literary career, in 1896, government, aristocracy and people in general vied with each other in doing him honor. On that occasion Emperor Francis Joseph elevated him to the rank of a member of the Hungarian House of Lords, an odd turn of fate when it is considered that under the same ruler, in 1848, he was obliged, as a revolutionist, to flee the country.

He reached more than the biblical term of years allotted to man, but in spite of this, he retained his youthful energy intact, and up to his death he kept on working. He did not turn out the quantity of former years, but the quality of his work was unimpaired. He never worked at night, but the early dawn found him at his desk, where he remained, with short intervals, until noon.

In spite of his age he was erect and his walk had still something of the spring of youth. That his heart was always youthful, he proved by his marriage to the young actress, Boriska Frank, only a few years ago, and this second venture of matrimony turned out to be as happy as the first one with Rosa Laborfalvy.

In appearance Maurus Jokai was tall, thin, with a prominent, high forehead and a leonine expression in his face. His hair was of late getting rather scant, and to hide this defect he was vain enough to wear a wig. He always wore a full beard, carefully trimmed, and, when working in his study, he usually wore a blue velvet skull-cap.

Some years before his death, he gave up active work in politics, relinquished the editorial chair and dropped his hobby of ivory carving and painting to devote his remaining years exclusively to literary work. When I saw him last, he was working on an epic poem, the subject of which was taken from the earliest Hungarian history. This he expected to take a place in his national literature similar to the "Nibelungenlied" in German literature. Whether he ever finished it I do not know, but what I saw of the manuscript certainly justified his hopes.

His best known works in English translation are probably "The Modern Mydas," which was published in America under the title "Timar's Two Worlds," and "Black Diamonds." Another one, "Eyes Like the Sea," also created great interest. He was much interested in American affairs, and his American literary favorites were Edgar Allan Poe and Longfellow. He was not much of a traveler, but he frequently expressed his regret at not having visited the United States at the time when his famous copatriot, Louis Kossuth, came to the United States to interest the American public in the cause of Hungarian liberty.

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HOW TO GO INTO THE WOODS

BY

WILLIAM J. LONG

AUTHOR OF "THE SCHOOL OF THE WOODS," "A LITTLE BROTHER TO THE BEAR" ETC.

THE editor has asked me for an article which shall explain to his readers the most simple and satisfactory way of getting into the big woods on a vacation. Perhaps the best suggestion of all would be for me to explain my own plan of action:

A month before the good day comes I write two letters, one to a wholesale grocer, the other to a delicatessen shop, telling the delighted owners to have certain provisions at a certain station on a certain day. Three weeks later I drag down from the garret a couple of big, waterproof bags containing my tent, blankets and woods clothes, and send them off by express to the same station. Then, when the day comes, I just gather up a few things and go. There is no bother or worry or difficulty about it; the whole process is as simple as going fishing.

This plan, however, like the Hindu theory of the universe, is simple only to the initiated. The elect smile and understand; the rest fire a volley of questions: "Isn't it difficult? Isn't it dangerous? Isn't it expensive? What shall we wear? What shall we take? Where shall we go? How shall we get there? What about children?" I shall take it for granted, therefore, that you are a beginner, that you would like a vacation in the woods, in the quiet, beautiful world away from the cities of men, and that you are bothered by difficulties about expense, ignorance, children, mosquitoes, physicians and a score of other things which have thus far prevented you from following your heart. Let me say at the outset that all these difficulties are chiefly imaginary. If you can afford a vacation anywhere, only one question need concern you, namely, is there enough of the boy or girl left in you to enjoy fishing and hunting for your own dinner, and paddling about the lake and sitting about the fire and "shooling" about the woods and getting close to nature again and, above all, in being lazy and comfortable with nothing whatever to do? In other words, aside from all shams and vacation habits, would you honestly like to go into the woods? If so, go. You will find less trouble, less unpleasantness, less danger and more enjoyment per day and dollar than in any other place in the world.

The first trip which naturally suggests itself is a camping trip on some lake or river, where there is good fishing, near home. Here you can have supplies of all kinds brought to you daily, and your problem is a very simple one. Have tents enough so that each group can be by itself, and an extra tent for a dining-room. In front of the latter make a roof of tarred paper or tent cloth, and under it put an old cook-stove with a pipe through the roof. This is prosaic, but it saves profanity, and you can get more solid comfort out of it in one meal than you could out of cooking before an open fire in a week. Let fools go into the woods to rough it; do you get as much ease and good dinners out of the experience as possible. You are going into the woods for rest, not for sackcloth and ashes. You will have a better time if you feed well and are comfortable; and remember that, in the woods especially, it takes less time and thought and effort to be comfortable than to be uncomfortable. So let the horses drag in the old cook-stove, and anything else that will add to your comfort and convenience.

As for beds, you can make comfortable ones out of fir or hemlock branches, if you know how. At the head and foot of your resting-place put a log eight or ten inches in diameter, and stake them in place. Across them, lengthwise, nail springy saplings about three inches apart. On these put a layer of coarse branches

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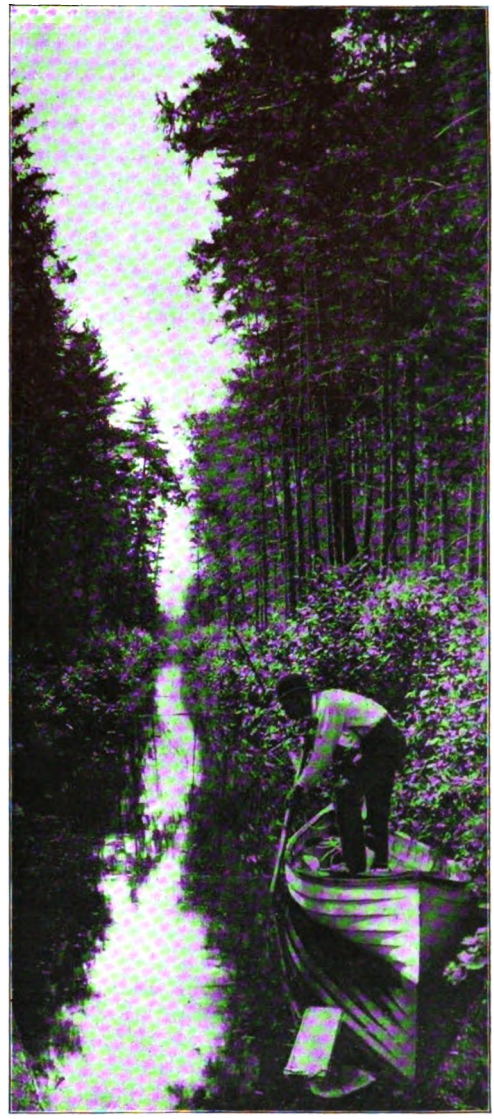
of fir, a foot thick, and on top of this another thick layer of fine branches, all with the convex side up. Begin at the top, stick the broken ends into the bed and let the boughs curl over toward the head, and so work downward till the entire bed is covered. On this spread your blankets, and you have a resting-place that is worth, in solid comfort, ten times the amount of trouble it took to make it.

If this plan seems difficult, take an easier one. Let the horses do the work, and carry your beds with you. Take along your own beloved hair mattresses, and a pillow, and anything else to make you comfortable. You will find out, after one trip, what things are essential; but on this trip be your own proud master, and, remembering Falstaff's two shirts, "one for superfluity and one for use," take in all that you really need, and one or two things besides. Make a framework for the hair mattress, or, better still, let somebody make it for you, and your tender ribs will then find no unaccustomed roughnesses. A good night's rest is worth any amount of careful preparation; that is the first law of camping for pleasure.

Of course, you can take a bag and fill it with hay and throw it on the ground for a bed. You can also spoil your dinner and your temper before an open fire, instead of a cook-stove, and so rejoice in roughing it; but your wife will think you a nicer man if you go the other way, and to win a good opinion from her again, after you have mostly lost it, is worth some small concession in the way of discomforts that are romantic only in anticipation.

A few other suggestions are enough: A tent with a fly, even though the fly be homemade, of ordinary unbleached cotton cloth, is better every way than a waterproof tent. Nights are often cold in the woods, and it is better to have too many than too few blankets. A heavy woolen sleeping suit and socks are also better than sheets and a "nightey"—but I hardly expect you to take this advice until after you have gone one trip and found out for yourself that it is true. Above all, hire somebody to do the cooking, if you can possibly scrape together the money for it. Cooking and dishwashing are even less fun in the woods than at home, and after you have been fishing all



A WOODLAND VISTA

day, or sleeping all night, it is immensely comfortable to come home or to get up and find a nice hot fish chowder or some coffee and ham and eggs all ready for eating.

Aside from hauling in your stuff and hiring a cook and tents, the expense of such a trip is ridiculously small. Two dollars a week for each person is an ample allowance for comfortable living; and in a good game and fish region I have fared sumptuously every day on half that sum. In a camp near home you will have the advantage of being able to

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spend as much more as you please; but you may be assured before you start that, however much you are troubled with the twin sisters of dyspepsia and pessimism at home, your out-door life will give you an appetite to appreciate the simplest and plainest fare. Beware of too much pork —all the rest will take care of itself.

Once, as we were starting off on a long trip, I found that Simmo, my Indian, had put in the canoe a huge chunk of pork, as big as a dog, besides that which I had already provided.

"Hello, Simmo," I said, "isn't that too much pork for ten weeks?"

"Well, you see, M'shr Long, too much pork is jus' nuff."

He took it; and for weeks I had to serve him rations of blue pills and cascara with his pork, until we got a fat, young bear, which he liked much better.

The second trip to suggest itself is one into the deep wilderness, "where the bear roams and the wildcat prowls"; and this, strange as it may sound, is very much simpler and better than the other. In the first case you have to plan everything yourself; here everything is done for you, if you choose to have it so.

First, it is well to remember the Nantucket whaleman's counsel, which applies also to every other journey in life, and perhaps to life itself: You must go one voyage to learn. Pick out the place, nearest your home, where you wish to go; then write to the passenger agent of the railroad asking for information. There are now a score of railroads all over the country which penetrate good game and fishing regions, where camps are already waiting for you. Most of these roads furnish booklets, which, though somewhat over roseate, still give you the information you are looking for. But before you decide use your friends. Ask the sportsmen and fishermen of your town. They are a kindly lot and will rejoice to help you. Knowing and loving deeply the good life out of doors, they are always glad to add another member to the brotherhood; and often while you are wondering where you can possibly go, some quiet man of your acquaintance knows just the spot where you will be perfectly happy.

It is decidedly better, in this first trip to the big woods, to go to some established camp on your "voyage to learn." There you can have your tent, or your little log cabin, all to yourself and enjoy the woods and waters. Meanwhile you take no thought for to-day or to-morrow, for your wants are cared for by the proprietor, and you eat at a common dining-table with a few nice, kindly people who come to the woods as you do.

In the State of Maine alone there are probably a hundred such camps where you can take your first taste of the wilderness, and very pleasant you will find it. The expense is comparatively small. All the railroads furnish excursion tickets at reduced rates; and good board is from six to twelve dollars a week, according to the location and the length of your stay. It is decidedly better to have a guide also, even for a little time, if you can afford it; but this is a luxury rather than a necessity, and you can very well do without him, especially if you hire a canoe or boat and know how to use it. I advocate this kind of trip for a beginner, simply because he will learn more of the joy of the woods and the art of taking care of himself in a single week than he could possibly learn from a year's reading; and whatever he pays, it is worth the price and will yield him in the future the best returns of any of his investments.

Still another kind of trip is to journey by canoe down the rivers and through the lakes of the big wilderness; and this, if you are sure you like the woods, is best of all. It offers no difficulties whatever, unless you have small children along, in which case it is better to go to a permanent camp. You simply hire guides who provide tents, food, cooking outfits and everything necessary. You appear with your belongings at a certain place on a certain day, and the guides look after you as if they had charge of a day nursery. But this is more expensive and is better taken after you have tried the permanent camp.

If you go to the latter, you need no preparation whatever for the nights, any more than you would make in going, in simple fashion, to a summer hotel. The beds are almost invariably comfortable, though a trifle harder than your own, and scrupulously clean. As you need not bother to "go light" on such a trip—for you are not exploring Labrador—put in a

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down quilt, or a pair of soft blankets, or, better still, a warm traveling rug, which you can also use out of doors, and some warm night clothes.

By all means take a little tent with you on such a trip, or engage with the camp-owner to have one at your disposal. You can buy a six-by-eight wall tent very cheaply, or have the fun of making an A tent out of unbleached cotton cloth, which is very light to carry and which, with a fly, will keep you dry in the hardest rain. I have one such home-made tent which has gone with me on a dozen long trips, and which rolls up into a compact bundle and weighs with the fly about six pounds. With such a tent you can make little excursions to pretty spots on outlying lakes and rivers, and so get used to the work and the joy of making camp and cooking before an open fire in the wilderness. Take with the tent an air bed, if you can afford it. It is a luxury rather than a necessity, however, and you can make a thick bed of fir boughs on the ground instead. But the air bed is immensely comfortable and healthful, and you can put under it a thick mat of fir boughs and so get all the delicious fragrance, which is one of the chief charms of sleeping in the wilderness.

Most people are curiously timid about living in the woods, and the question which is oftenest asked me is in regard to the dangers of such a trip. To answer the question in a word: there are no dangers in the wilderness which an ordinarily careful person need consider for a moment. My first trip was made as a boy, alone, into the heart of the New Brunswick wilderness in midwinter, when the thermometer was down to thirty below zero almost every night; my last trip was knocking about the coasts and salmon rivers of Newfoundland and Labrador in a little schooner amid the fogs and ice, and between these were twenty-five or thirty more trips, all into the deepest wilderness. In all that time—with the exception of crawling into an animal's den, or climbing for eagles' nests, or going under a waterfall to see how the salmon get up, and a few other things that one need not do unless he deliberately chooses—I can not recall a single moment of real danger; and there was

A GOOD PLACE FOR A CAMP

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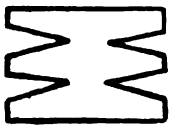
probably not a single trip which invited so much disaster as going to the city through the New York Central's abominable tunnel, which thousands of timid people do every day without thinking.

Of course, in fishing and canoeing about the lakes and in hunting for your dinner there is some slight danger of drowning or getting shot or losing oneself; but this danger is not one-tenth part as great as that to which you expose yourself daily from accidents, microbes and impure water. Danger in the woods is far less real and far more obvious, and precisely for the latter reason it is more certainly escaped; so that, strange as it may seem, you are much safer there, with the pure air and water and immunity from a hundred accidents which menace you in the cities, than you would be at home.

The same thing applies to the animals. All the animals of the wilderness are shy and timid, and much more eager to avoid you than to make your acquaintance. In the town there is a very positive danger from numberless dogs and skittish horses and the germ-laden breath of cats; but in the woods all these disappear. The animals there are harmless as rabbits, and if you see them at all it will be the result of patient and persistent effort on your part, and even then you will have to content yourself mostly with vanishing glimpses.

The lack of danger and the hearty healthfulness of the woods apply to children quite as much as to adults. My little Lois has already made two trips into the deepest wilderness, once as a baby of six months, and again a year later; and she was never quite so healthy or happy as during the months she spent in camp. My own opinion is, that with the pure air and water and the out-door life of the woods, a child is safer there, without a physician, than she would be in town with the best possible physician within easy call. A child rarely needs medicine anyway. Two or three simple remedies, with care, are always enough; and these you can learn in a half-hour's talk with your family doctor, if you don't know them well enough already.

Make a crib for the little one; put in a thick layer of fir tips and a down quilt, and she will sleep better than ever she did at home. For carrying her about there is nothing equal to the Indian device. Take a large square of linen and cut it, so:



Tie the lower ends around your waist. Put the baby in the hollow at your back with her little legs sticking out comfortably on either side. Cross the other four ends under and over your shoulders and tie them across your chest, leaving her arms free on either side, like her legs. In this a child is supported at every part of her body, and she will travel and sleep comfortably and contentedly for hours, while you are walking over the hardest of wood trails.

The subject of medicine suggests another frequent cause of unnecessary worry. It is just as well to make up your mind to the truth beforehand, that you are not going to be sick, for in the woods you will rarely find sufficient inducement. To keep the bowels regular is the only question that need concern you; and in the matter of food and medicine you already know how to answer the problem. Still, besides this remedy, which is most essential, take in, for mental comfort, a few more that your own knowledge or your physician will suggest. Add to these a hot-water bag, a small bottle of alcohol, another of liniment, a few ready bandages, a small flask of brandy, a bigger flask of whisky—for medicine, and for a rare, wee, comforting nip when you come home late, wet and cold and pessimistic—and you are ready for all emergencies. But remember that, except for the bowels, the chances are, a hundred to one, that you will not need to open the medicine chest from the time you start till you come home again.

In all my trips I have never but once needed a surgical instrument. A greedy, hungry man swallowed a fish bone, which lodged deep down in his throat, so that there was no way of getting it out. I took a long, straight stick, peeled it to make it slippery, split one end and wove a ring of grass to fit close about the other. Then I put the split end over the bone, pushed the ring down with another stick till the split ends gripped tight, and pulled out the tormenting obstacle.

What to wear is the last question. For underclothing, take along just what you

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are accustomed to use in summer elsewhere. For outer clothing, stick to stout, comfortable old woolens, and avoid khaki, which is noisy and unsatisfactory in the woods, and corduroy, which soaks water like a sponge and has no warmth in it. For a woman, short skirt, high boots, flannel shirt waists (with an extra cotton waist or two for sunny days), felt hat, sweater, thick jacket and any other comforts. For a man, stout but light shoes, knickers, woolen blouse, sweater and old coat. For the canoe, canvas shoes are excellent, and for prowling through wet grass and underbrush in the early mornings a pair of rubbers make the best possible kind of slippers. Woolen stockings are best, if your feet will stand them—though I am myself condemned to cotton—and before you go on any unusually hard tramp a thorough rubbing of the feet with oil or vaselin, or, better still, animal fat, will make an enormous difference in your comfort, and will often bring you back to camp fresh and vigorous instead of tired out.

Mosquitoes and black flies are incredibly thick in the wilderness in June and July, often later; but the permanent camps are usually on the open shores of a lake, and with one unusual exception, which was easily understood, I have rarely been troubled in such a camp at any season. For comfort it is better to go in August or September than earlier; but for good fishing the earlier months are much the best, except in northern Canada, where trout rise at all seasons. Along the rivers of the deep wilderness mosquitoes and black flies are bound to trouble you while fishing in the early summer; and so it is better to go prepared. A veil, in the form of a cylinder, with an elastic at either end, one to fit around the hat and the other under the collar, is, with a pair of old thick gloves, a perfect protection. Instead of gloves, a mitten (leaving the fingers free) and armlet may be quickly made out of an old stocking; and then the little beggars can not get up your sleeve or into the wrist-cut in your flannel blouse. Men who want to smoke or see clearly can modify the veil so as to make it fit close over the eyes and under the lips, leaving only your eyes and nose exposed.

For nights, be sure, in a mosquito country, that there are no open holes about the bottom of your tent, and take along a big piece of netting to pin over the open door. Better still, make an inner pyramid tent of stout gauze or cheesecloth, the top to be fastened to the roof and the bottom to be tucked in around the edges of your bed, so you can sleep comfortably; and remember, again, that a good night's rest is more to be desired than fine gold, or a big trout, or the greatest buck's head in the wilderness.

You will probably insist on carrying some kind of "fly dope," and perhaps it is well, though I rarely use it. The best preparation I have found, after a good deal of experimenting, consists of six parts sweet oil, four parts thick oil of tar and one part carbolic acid. A little oil of pennyroyal is generally used; but it hurts the eyes and evaporates so quickly that it is of little use. The carbolic acid is much better. Such a mixture is rather pleasant to smell, if you like it, and leaves the skin soft and clear when washed away. But except in the Far North and in the deepest wilderness, the plague of mosquitoes has been greatly exaggerated; and if your camp is on the open shore of a lake, with the trees thinned out and the underbrush cut away, you will be little troubled—perhaps just enough, which is the way of this world, to make you appreciate your mercies.

There is plenty more advice, but this is quite enough to start and be happy upon. I have not written for boys, who love the thought of camping out and who will get fun—God bless them—out of any experience; nor for men who want to "go light" and "rough it" and explore an unknown region, and who must learn first of all to live on the country, so as to avoid such a sad and utterly unnecessary tragedy as has recently taken place in the interior of Labrador. I have written for ordinary men and women, who long to go to the woods, but who are prevented by family cares and all sorts of difficulties. To all such I say, go and have no fear. Your difficulties will be found chiefly imaginary; your cares will blow away in the wind or lose themselves in the woods or vanish down the music of a trout stream, and you will bring back the whole family happier and healthier than when you started.

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HOW A LABOR MACHINE HELD UP CHICAGO

AND HOW THE TEAMSTERS' UNION SMASHED THE MACHINE

BY

ERNEST POOLE

"IF any corporation in the city of Chicago fancies it can down unionism, I am here to give it a fight that will put it out of business."

It was spoken loud enough for the whole saloon to hear. The speaker, who swaggered at the bar, was "Al" Young—the boss of forty thousand teamsters. By "unionism" he meant the "understanding" between "Al" Young, president of the Teamsters' Union, and John C. Driscoll, secretary of the Associated Teaming Interests.

Young, Driscoll & Co.—this was the labor machine.

The dramatic tale of how Driscoll, the clerk drawing $55 a month, in two years became Driscoll the professional conciliator at $8,000 a year and unknown fees besides, will never be told in full. In New York bribing labor leaders has been made a criminal offense. In Chicago the men who could tell the public about this professional agent of theirs will forever hold their peace. Certain plain statements, however, can be made and they have proofs behind them.

Before the story is told, however, we must know the teamster himself, the man on whose personal qualities and position the machine of Young, Driscoll & Co. was founded.

THE TEAMSTER REALIZES HIS POWER.

The teamster holds the strategic point in the battle between labor and employer. You can see him any day in the rush and jam of the downtown street, an Irish-American, rough, swaggering, big-hearted, honest. He is up in life now, but four years ago he was decidedly down. His wage and hours were like those of the sweatshop victim, on whom so much sympathy has been rightly poured. Thousands of teamsters worked from 3:30 A.M. until 7:30 P.M., and their wages averaged from $8 to $10 a week. There was this difference between them and the sweatshop victims: Society, while it sweated the wretched tailor, taught him to lie down and die; it taught the teamster to strike back. His whole waking life was an endless fight for precedence. In the South Water Street jam the police gave up making arrests, for there were fights every hour, while at bridges, markets and railway stations, wherever the tangle was thickest, the teamster amply made good the name which the County Hospital doctors have given him —"the roughest, toughest scrapper of the working classes."

Society taught him to depend on his own fists; on his own head as well. He was responsible for his load, for freight bills, and often for C. O. D. collections. He had the whole city, besides, to think out. He constantly looked down upon it shrewdly from his high box seat, and sized up all he saw. "The teamster," said one veteran labor leader, "is a man of the world, a sport and a fighter."

At odd moments upon his box he read the newspapers. About 1900 he began to read more closely and said things harder when interrupted. He grew absorbed in the coal trust, the oil trust, the steel trust and a score of other capitalist combines. Soon after he began to read every morning the story of some new labor combine created over night. As one newspaper man told me, "Labor unions were all the

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rage. We used to play up every little beginner for a front-page column." Prosperity was another popular story, and because this story was real the demand for labor rose swiftly. Our teamster, as he drove about, saw strike after strike for higher wages, and saw most of them won. Slowly he began to feel that combination and money were in the air—close together.

THE BUILDING OF THE MACHINE.

Thousands of teamsters saw the chance; one man "saw it big." And, in spite of all the graft stories now told of Albert Young and his bossdom, he must still be credited with the real American genius; he "saw the chance big" and built boldly. Young began with the weak, old coal teamsters' union, and in the fall of 1901, when the International Teamsters' Union met in Chicago, he had already given two marks of his genius. First, he had organized three thousand men; second, he claimed six thousand.

The convention was largely controlled by delegates from small towns, who displeased Young; first, by raising the national dues, and so weakening Chicago bossdom; second, by providing that any employer owning less than five teams might belong to the union. This did well for small towns, but here in Chicago, where modern society develops most swiftly, as the city grew the class struggle had already appeared; and Young was unwilling to have any employer, however small, on his side of the widening gap. He had already seen the power the teamsters might wield. He now seized the one great weapon to rouse them to it—class bitterness. On this, in January, 1902, he formed the Teamsters' National Union, a seceding body to which no employers were admitted. And when all over the city the men responded by tens of thousands, then Young's genius was rewarded with power. The old union was driven from Chicago, the new one elected Young as its president. Recruiting now went on swiftly. Night after night, all over the city, Young told the teamsters that when they went out on a strike Chicago must go out of business or give in. So forty thousand teamsters were trained by society to violence, and then suddenly roused to power.

ALBERT YOUNG

The movement so far had been an open lining up of labor, in sympathy with all organized labor of the city, under leaders whose honesty was unquestioned, controlled by the votes of forty thousand teamsters. From this time on the movement went under a heavy, confusing cloud; was estranged from the rest of organized labor, and, controlled by a machine, built up with amazing swiftness, secrecy and power.

Driscoll won the teamsters by raising their wages. For an employers' agent to raise wages seems incredible. This is how it was done. Driscoll was already secretary of the Coal Team Owners' Association. To these employers he had demonstrated, in the fall of 1901, that it was a money-making proposition to give up their individual liberty and their cutthroat competition, to combine into a close association, and to sign a five-year agreement with Young's Coal Teamsters' Union. The agreement provided that the association should employ none but members of the union, that the union in turn should work for none but members of the association. This is the strict union-shop agreement. To most employers it is a money loser, and most employers denounce it as an infringement on the indi-

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vidual liberties of the American citizen. To these employers it was a money winner, and they signed it without demur. At once wages and cartage both rose some thirty per cent. The public paid the bill.

Shortly after this, Driscoll organized the Truck Team Owners and signed a like agreement with the Truck Drivers' Union. He did the same for the van owners and their men; and, later, agreements essentially like these were signed by all those employers whose sole business was teaming.

As a result Driscoll swiftly gained the employers' confidence and became secretary of each new association. Meanwhile, through Young, he had gained the absolute, enthusiastic confidence of the teamsters all over the city. Then swiftly Young and Driscoll built up a machine among the teamster leaders. Certain gay night gatherings began, and these grew steadily more frequent, more lavish, more protracted, into the small hours. Certain teamster leaders tasted such luxury of the town as they had never dreamed of. Slowly the lines of influence were drawn tighter, and within these lines was slowly gathered, through minor labor leaders, the tremendous potential force which the teamsters as yet had not realized—the power to hold up Chicago.

THE TEAMSTERS FEARED BY THE BIG MERCHANTS.

The machine's first holdup—which has now become so famous—was in the spring of 1902. The big department stores were using natural gas in summer, so lessening the work of coal teamsters and curtailing the profits of coal team owners. A committee from the union suddenly appeared before Marshall Field and the other big store owners, and made this modest request: "Will you promise to use no natural gas for five years, and to remove all your natural gas appliances?" When the astounded merchants asked "What business is it of yours?" they were asked in turn, "How long can you run your store if we stop delivering coal?" Not long. The merchants were frozen out and surrendered. So the teamsters' reputation as highwaymen was started.

This reputation was soon again impressed in a startling manner. The stockyards employ some seven hundred teamsters. In May, 1902, they struck for higher wages and shorter hours, and a strict union-shop agreement. To the thirty thousand other stockyard workers, all organized under the Packing Trades Council, these demands seemed wholly unjust. It would have been wise for the seven hundred teamsters to seek the support of these thirty thousand; to ask for a sympathetic strike by which the stockyards might have been paralyzed and the packers forced to give in. This they did not do, but dealt only with Young at headquarters and decided to fight alone. They stopped work, and for one week the city's meat supply was cut off, until the stock of the retail butchers ran out, and the first signs of a meat famine appeared. The packers then called on the mayor for police, and on the morning of June 4 a long caravan of wagons, driven by superintendent and clerks, heavily guarded by police, started down town. They reached Fifth Avenue in the busy noon hour, and here was shown the teamsters' heaviest strike weapon—the sympathetic blockade.

As the head of the long caravan appeared, a coal teamster suddenly drove his heavy load straight through the line. His pole knocked down one of the packer's horses. The police ordered him off. He replied that his wagon was stuck. An instant later and this was true, for another big coal wagon crashed in beside his, a beer wagon followed, and at once the jam stretched down the block, while teams of every size and trade charged swiftly from the side streets. In vain the police dragged driver after driver down from his seat, clubbing to right and left, and making arrests on every side. As teams were backed out, more teams drove in with fresh enthusiasm. Far ahead other blockades were swiftly gathering. In one of them twenty-five big wagons were wedged in tight at a corner, the horses were detached and led off to a side street, while countless other wagons were driven in from both sides to make the jam more effective. All this was done, not by the striking teamsters, but by the rest of the forty thousand, who were now making use of the training society had given them.

The human cost of this riot was sur-

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prisingly small. Not a life was lost, although several persons were seriously injured, and many more were severely bruised. But the money cost to the downtown merchants was heavy, for during several hours their business was brought to a standstill. Had the strike gone on the cost would have been tremendous. And when that same night Albert Young met the packers, accepted their compromise agreement and at once forced the men to accept it, then the merchants learned their second lesson. They knew now not only that the teamsters could paralyze downtown business, but that Driscoll's friend could completely control the teamsters.

One month later this lesson was driven home by the sympathetic action of the teamsters in the strike of the nine thousand freight handlers employed by the twenty-four railroads entering the city.

This tie-up—so the teamsters told their own employers—was due to "intimidation" by the strikers' pickets. "Intimidation" may be defined in many ways. Here is one:

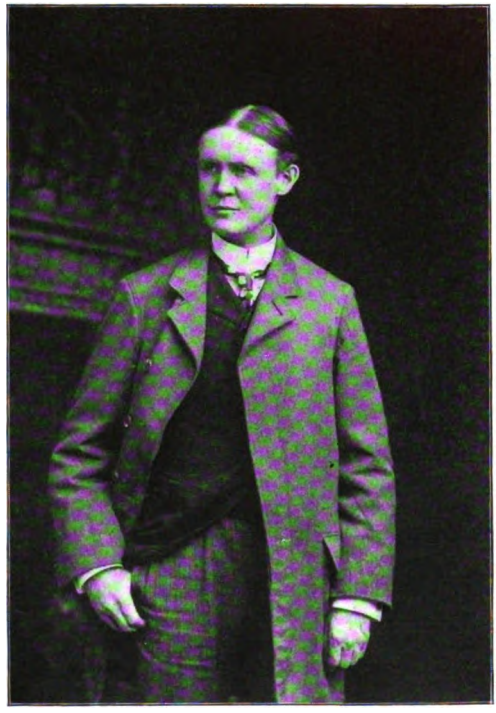
A big truck, piled high with freight, was slowly approaching the depot. Way up on the box sat an Irishman, six feet three, and weighing about two hundred pounds. He was peacefully puffing on an old clay pipe. Suddenly, in the street below, a wiry little red-headed picket stepped out. The big truck stopped. "Don't shoot," said the driver. He peered down at the little picket; then he took his pipe out of his mouth and grinned. By this time another truck had stopped behind him.

"Moike!" the big man called back. "Are we intimidated?" Mike stood up and searched the street till at last his eyes fell on the little picket.

"We are," said Mike.

"Thin let's git out before the riot begins." They did.

But this universal intimidated feeling had its serious side. The demands of the men, for higher wages and a shorter working day of from 7 A.M. to 6 P.M., were endorsed by labor throughout the city. But the most enthusiastic sympathizers of all were the teamsters, and here they showed just a glimpse of the absolute pivotal power they could wield in winning or losing a strike by other workers. To quote from the State Board of Arbitration's report, "The uniform failure on the part of individual teamsters to deliver freight to the non-union men who had taken the places of the strikers, rendered the tie-up complete." The commission wagon drivers on South Water Street in their meeting voted to boycott the railroads until the strike was settled. At once vast quantities of fruit and vegetables began to rot at the stations, while the newspapers spoke ominously of a food and fuel famine. Chicago was cut off from the outside world. Nine thousand freight handlers could be partly replaced by scabs; not so forty thousand teamsters.



JOHN C. DRISCOLL

At this time Albert Young was in Boston. It can not be denied that he generally was out of town in the early days of any big strike in which teamsters might be involved. He has been repeatedly charged with this at the meetings of the Teamsters' Council. As at other times, so now, Young was away, until the railroad managers and all the team owners as well became thoroughly alarmed, until

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the expense of the strike was $1,000,000 a day. And as at other times, so now, Driscoll became most prominent. As representative of the team owners he met the railroad managers again and again; he figured largely at noon mass meetings of the startled merchants. Then Young returned from Boston and at once the teamsters resumed work. Soon after this the strike was called off and the freight handlers, now deserted by the teamsters, returned to work at the wages offered before the strike by the managers.

The merchants had now learned the whole lesson. Their own teamster employes had disobeyed them. They had seen the sympathetic strike at its height, and the cost was $10,000,000. The teamsters were highwaymen; Chicago was "an industrial hell"; the only ray of light came from the machine, Young, Driscoll & Co.

The merchants and team owners now all came together in the Associated Teaming Interests, with Driscoll as secretary. He now drew an additional salary of $6,000 a year.

The teamsters had become hated by the business men. They had also, through deserting the freight handlers, lost the support and advice of older organized labor. They became practical outlaws nine months later through the decision rendered by the Chicago Board of Arbitration in the gas trust's dispute with its employes. This board was the latest of Driscoll's creations. He was its conciliator. The board had fourteen members. On the one side were seven employers, most of them merchants. They were there to represent the employers' point of view. On the other side were seven teamsters, there to represent the point of view of labor. No one has ever questioned the loyalty of the seven employers to their constituents. As to the good faith of the teamsters' representatives the decision speaks for itself:

We feel that the maintenance of the gas pressure is at all times vitally necessary to the protection of the city against crime and the health of the public.

We believe that should the gashouses be in the entire charge of any collection of men who are subject to the absolute orders of some leaders who may not have the general good of the public at heart or who may be guided by personal or vicious motives, very serious trouble would be sure to occur. We therefore believe that it is entirely inexpedient for the company to permit such a possible condition to become a part of the operating of its gashouses.

Seven labor leaders had recommended that it was inexpedient for the gas trust to recognize unionism! The decision was hotly denounced in the Chicago Federation of Labor. It was published from coast to coast in all the labor journals. It was read by two million astounded union men. And the teamsters were the Ishmaelites of organized labor.

THE MACHINE PROSPERS AND "CONCILIATES."

Young, Driscoll & Co. had now reached the zenith of their power. The merchants regarded Driscoll as the peacemaking dictator of forty thousand highwaymen. The teamsters, thrown off by organized labor and bound by the machine, were the catspaw of his ambition. The other machine leaders—especially Young, McGee and Barry—were his boon companions. Together they played the races, together they did the town, together they ran the teamsters. The game was won. The business of Chicago was in the hands of the machine.

Driscoll now intruded himself into industrial disputes all over the city—into the waiters' strikes, the tailors' strikes, the strike at the rubber trust's plant, the strike at the plant of the National Biscuit Company, the janitors' strike, the laundrymen's strike, wherever the teamsters could by hook or crook be involved, there Driscoll went. There he explained first how he feared that the teamsters might boycott the place; second, how experienced he was in handling union leaders.

The machine certainly was honest at one point: "You can't go to these fellows (meaning the teamsters) with a Bible in your hand," Driscoll used to say. A cloak manufacturer once went to Driscoll's office for help. A moment later some reporters coming in met the cloak man sadly walking out. Inside they found Driscoll leaning back in his chair completely bewildered.

"Well, boys," he exclaimed, "what do you think of that? Wanted me to settle his strike!" And he added reflectively, "That's the first —— ——— employer that ever came here for help without even offering to come up with the cash."

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And the other employers?

"Yes, it is true," said one of Chicago's biggest merchants, "that Driscoll receives fees for settling strikes. Why shouldn't he? He is a strike settler by profession. If your men are giving you trouble, you go to Driscoll and place your case in his hands. He is acquainted with the representatives of the trade unions in Chicago. He goes to them and makes arrangements which restores industrial peace. Why shouldn't he receive fees for professional services of this kind?"

This statement appeared in a newspaper. I took it to its author and asked him to confirm it. He read it. "Stand for it—yes!" he said. "And what's more, if a strike was called here to-day, I would send for Driscoll at once and give him $500 to settle it."

How high these fees sometimes mounted is shown by the boast which Driscoll once made, to two newspaper men at one time, that he had been placed on the pay-roll of the rubber trust at $2,000 a year.

How he went without a Bible to the labor leaders was described to me by John Fitzpatrick, organizer for the Chicago Federation of Labor:

"The stable employes of the big express companies presented an agreement demanding an increase in wages of $5 a month. The companies stated that they were willing to concede, and sent for Orphan, the business agent of the stable employes. The employes told Orphan to sign nothing until they had ratified it. Driscoll had long been attempting to bring these express companies into his Associated Teaming Interests, but they had refused. On account of the collusion that existed between Driscoll and Orphan, Orphan now notified the companies that he would not sign the agreement unless they came into the Associated Teaming Interests. Rather than face a strike, they agreed to come in later. But they told Driscoll that as they had been forced into the Associated Teaming Interests, they would not give the $5 increase. Driscoll and Orphan then signed an agreement by which the stable employes received only the old rate of wages. When this agreement was read in the union meeting, Orphan at once decided to leave the room and the city. He left his coat and vest behind. He is now, on some other charge, in the penitentiary. I was called in later to this union and advised the men that as the companies had signed the agreement in good faith with their accredited representative, they must stand by it. They did."

THE MACHINE'S LAST BLUFF.

Just before its downfall began, the machine tried the most audacious bluff of them all—in the strike of the Kellogg Switchboard Company. Here five hundred employes struck on May 7, 1903. They had not the remotest connection with the teamsters, for their hauling was done by a transfer company. In spite of this, the president was told the teamster machine wished to see him. To this he paid no attention. The machine felt insulted. On June 24 a strike was called on the transfer company, and they were forced to stop all hauling for the Kellogg plant. For twelve days not a switchboard went out; then the company bought two teams and wagons, asked for a police guard, and started them off. This time there were no crowded streets to pass through, for their plant is on the edge of the city, and deliveries were safely made to outlying depots.

The machine had still one more weapon to use—the Coal Teamsters' Union. The company did not use coal, but they did use electric power. This was supplied by the Edison Company, and Albert Young said: "That company will be tied up tight pretty soon—we will shut off its coal supply and it will not be able to turn a wheel." And he added, "We can stand this all summer and there will be something doing every day. We live on warfare and I am not happy out of a fight."

Unfortunately, these words were sworn to by many listeners. Legal troubles loomed up; the company threatened legal action. The teamsters withdrew. The machine had made its last bluff. And the bluff was called.

THE TEAMSTERS RISE AGAINST THE MACHINE.

But there were among the teamster leaders some men who believed neither in fees nor in these ways of restoring industrial peace. After the gashouse decision was signed, these men began to open their eyes and "get together." They consulted certain older leaders of organized labor, and began quietly to awaken the forty thousand teamsters. When the fee system was explained to these forty thousand they at once responded, and then began a desperate struggle to throw off the machine that bound them.

The first step was to elect honest leaders to office at the annual convention of the national body, to be held early in August,

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1903, at Niagara Falls. In secret conferences a ticket was prepared. Driscoll, knowing nothing as yet of these movements, called a secret caucus of his machine in a room of the Great Northern Hotel, where a ticket was formed entirely of the men who had helped him in settling strikes. Unfortunately, several of those present were already in sympathy with the honest element and reported this caucus to them. Soon after, Driscoll's friends began to feel the rising opposition. In the weeks that followed, the two sides fought hard in the local elections of delegates to the convention. The main office to be fought for was that of secretary and treasurer, and for this Turley was the candidate of the honest element. The machine spent $500 to defeat Turley's election as delegate from his local union, but this was made useless when the other side procured his election to represent another local.

The convention arrived. Driscoll, not a labor leader, merely an employers' "strike settler by profession," was sitting quietly unseen in a hotel on the Canadian side. Turley was elected. The new executive board of twelve was to be the center of power in the new international body—the Brotherhood of Teamsters—formed at this convention by uniting the national union with the old international body. On this board the only man elected from the Young-Driscoll faction of Chicago was Albert Young, and he was elected by a special resolution, providing him an office for the reason that he had formerly been president of the national union. The resolution also made him general organizer.

Later, in Chicago, the work of destroying the machine went steadily on. At present in the Chicago Teamsters' Council, composed of the executive officers from all local unions, the Young faction, formerly in absolute control, is now but a small and swiftly decreasing minority.

Meanwhile fee haters were making things hot for Driscoll. In July, 1903, the following resolution was brought into the Chicago Federation of Labor by Michael Donnelly, president of the National Butchers' Union:

WHEREAS, It has come to the knowledge of the Packing Trades Council of Chicago that one John C. Driscoll, representing certain team owners of Chicago, has been using sums of money in an effort to reach officers of labor unions in this city, and

WHEREAS, Secretary Floersch, of this Council, was tendered the sum of seventy-five ($75) dollars by John C. Driscoll to induce him to furnish certain information regarding the packing house unions, which said sum of money was to be paid monthly. Therefore be it

***Resolved,* That we unequivocally condemn said John C. Driscoll and brand him as an enemy and a menace to the labor movement; and be it further**

***Resolved,* That we expose this trickster in the Chicago Federation of Labor, so that all unions affiliated may be warned to have nothing to do with him.**

At once the meeting was thrown into wild commotion. Men all over the hall sprang to their feet and charge after charge was hurled against Driscoll. An investigating committee was appointed, composed of Fitzgerald, Lemke and Hopp.

Fitzgerald, a bartender, suddenly became Driscoll's champion. He conferred with that famous saloonkeeper politician, "Skinny" Madden, who is called the labor boss of Chicago. Together they went to Lemke and urged him to sign a whitewashed report. They told him that Hopp had already signed. Lemke refused, and, in his own words, "I left them so abruptly that I don't believe that I even said good-night." Madden then went to Hopp, told him that Lemke had signed, and urged him to do likewise. This ruse failed, and Hopp refused. To get Hopp out of town was the object of the next ruse attempted. This was a fake telegram from his brother in Oregon, which said, "Your sister Gertrude is dead. Come at once." This, too, failed. What other means were used can only be conjectured. At all events, something prevailed. The whitewashed report was passed and was returned to the Federation for endorsement.

Endorsement was not forthcoming. The Federation hooted the report and appointed a second committee of five, of which Quinn was chairman. To Quinn's committee was submitted all the testimony given before Hopp, Lemke and Fitzgerald. From this testimony it appears that the packers had applied to Driscoll for membership in the Associated Teaming Interests. Driscoll; wishing to get in close touch with the butchers' union, sent for two of its officials, Stirling and

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Floersch. Stirling, in reporting this interview, said:

"He wanted to know how we conducted our business and also asked us several questions in regard to the Packing Trades Council. I told him that I was only one of the international officers and could do nothing in the matter, but that if he wished any further information to call on Mr. Donnelly who was in Kansas City at that time. He then stated that he would go to Kansas City and take the matter up with Mr. Donnelly."

Mr. Driscoll did not see Donnelly, but sent for Floersch to come to his office alone. Of this second interview Floersch testified as follows:

"Driscoll said to me, 'Floersch, I told you what I wanted you to do. I am willing to pay you $75 in advance, and I want you to keep me posted as to what is doing in the yards.' . . . He handed me the money. He picked up a book, which looked like a stub receipt book, and said, 'Sign this.' . . . I said, 'Mr. Driscoll, I will sign nothing.' And he said, 'There is no danger in this. Why, here are the names of the other fellows who have signed this. . . . Here is Joe Morton and Al Young.' . . . He also said, 'I never have two in this office at the same time, so that no one will be the wiser.'"

In regard to Joe Morton, Hopp testified before Quinn's committee as follows:

"I met Joe Morton on the sidewalk after the New Orleans convention of the teamsters, and, thinking that I knew all or more than we did know, he said, 'I'll tell you about that, Hopp,' and then he told me about Driscoll coming to him and saying, 'Morton, I have some work in New Orleans that I would like you to attend to for me—work at the teamsters' convention.' When I got back, Driscoll paid my expenses in two installments, and I signed receipts, after being urged to do so by Al Young, and this is how my name came to be on his receipt book."

Floersch returned and later he showed the money to Donnelly, who had come back from Kansas City. Donnelly went with six friends to Driscoll's office and returned the money. Of this interview Donnelly testified:

"Mr. Driscoll furthermore stated that he had some men doing like work in other branches of industry, and that his motive in giving Mr. Floersch the $75 was that he believed in paying his men for services performed."

There were seven witnesses to this statement. Driscoll himself had appeared before Hopp's committee and had made a long statement, admitting having paid the money, but claiming that he regarded it as a perfectly legitimate transaction. Of his interview with Floersch he said:

"I said, 'Well, $75 is about what you are getting (in Floersch's position as secretary). You will have to do quite an amount of work for the next month or so, and until after we have brought a joint trade agreement through and had it signed, and after that time, why we possibly may not have but very little to do, but that is the salary I am paying my three clerks who attend to the Team Owners' Association, and I think that would be a fair salary for this work you are going to do for me.'"

But when this statement was turned over to Quinn's committee, they failed to see why Driscoll, representing the employing interests, should choose as his clerk the secretary of the Labor Council. They said of this "legitimate business transaction":

"John C. Driscoll is all that Brother Donnelly charged him with being, 'an enemy and a menace to the labor movement,' and guilty of 'using sums of money in an effort to reach officers of labor unions in this city.'"

This was endorsed by the Federation. It was also voted that the report be published, and this was done. At this time Driscoll was interviewed by a group of reporters, who asked him for a reply to these charges. The machine now brought suddenly to bay, lost its head. Driscoll flared up, as was his unfortunate custom at times, and blurted out:

"The curse of the trade unions is their walking delegates. Let them get gay with us and I'll show them who has paid them money, when and why! I have done it myself, rather than submit to a strike, and I know what I am talking about when I say they are a lot of grafters and cheap skates!"

Before this, while Quinn's committee was still deliberating, Quinn received a letter from Driscoll's attorney, containing this threat:

I wish to advise your committee that if it improperly or illegally attacks my client, either in his character or reputation, or makes such a report as will vilify him in any particular, or denounce him as an enemy of labor, which he now declares to be false, he will take such legal steps upon such conduct of your committee, and each member of it, and all others, and will compel them to respond in damages for the injury they do him.

This bluff, however, was called. For Quinn's committee in their report made this statement regarding Driscoll, his fee system, and his gay night gatherings:

Such men as Driscoll are found in every age and in all countries. They are beasts of prey, and live by tooth and claw. They have no country. Their religion is a pretense; they

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live by devouring their fellow men. They have no more use for one organization than they have for the other, only in so far as it gratifies their appetites for material comforts. But it is an unfortunate reflection upon the intelligence and fairmindedness of the employing class that they have among them men foolish enough to permit such parasites as the Driscolls to fatten off them on the pretense that they are rendering useful service for the vast sums of money they receive.

This would almost seem to be "vilifying." But to Mr. Driscoll it was evidently not strong enough to give offense, for he never brought the threatened suit.

The attorney's letter to Quinn also said:

We wish to inform your committee that the false accusations heretofore made by Mr. Driscoll's persecutors are now a subject of judicial investigation in a suit already brought by him for the purpose of exposing their slanderous and libelous conduct toward him.

The persecutor referred to was Donnelly, author of the resolution. The suit was for $10,000. This suit was soon after withdrawn from court by Driscoll.

Shortly after this, Michael Donnelly was slugged and for many weeks lay at the point of death from concussion of the brain.

THE MACHINE'S LAST STAND.

From this time on, Driscoll's power swiftly declined. On the one side the teamsters were slipping from the hands of Young's machine, and were taking their proper place in the Chicago body of organized labor. On the other side, Driscoll had lost caste with the employers. One by one he resigned his many secretaryships. At last, in April, 1904, came the annual agreement to be signed between the ten thousand truck drivers and their employers. The drivers, obeying the warning of the Chicago Federation of Labor, refused to sign any agreement through Driscoll. Their business agent, Daniel Furman, gave me their reason in this moderate statement:

"We refused to deal with Mr. Driscoll because we felt that he had formed the habit of placing his personal advantage above all other considerations."

Driscoll resigned from the Associated Teaming Interests.

Driscoll and Young had just one remaining stronghold—the Coal Teamsters' Union. And here the machine made its last stand.

In the spring of 1904 Driscoll persuaded Young to resign his position as general organizer of the national body at a high salary, to become business agent of the Coal Teamsters' Union at $4 a day. For the 13th of May was drawing near, the time of Driscoll's reëlection or dismissal by the coal team owners.

On the night of May 13, ninety-five coal team owners came together in a downtown building. On the sidewalk below stood Young and four of the old guard. Each owner, as he entered, was approached by this group and advised to vote for Driscoll, as otherwise his own business might be ruined. The owners, who two years before had been so glad to come into Driscoll's combine, now found themselves in with a vengeance. Forty-seven employers revolted and voted against him; forty-eight voted for him! The machine had won out by a scratch. Driscoll still retains a vestige of his power.

The cloud, however, has lifted, and the two sides can now be seen clearly lined up.

The employers have thrown Driscoll overboard. How now will they meet the teamsters? It seems likely that the coal team owners, the truck owners, the van owners and all other employers whose business is solely teaming will continue the old strict union-shop agreement, for it is still to their interest to do so. On May 25, the truck owners met their men to sign their annual agreement. They had thrown over Driscoll. The mediator was F. C. Bender, now city clerk, but formerly a teamster leader of the fee-hating type. Here the men found that the exclusive union-shop agreement which Driscoll had given them could now be worked as well without him. And when a decision was reached granting eleven thousand men an increase of $6,522 a week, then the hour's shouting and cheering that followed showed how the men regarded the old policy of continuous peace. At last they were free.

But the other group of team owners, the merchants—they must fight. Long ago, when their teamsters demanded a union-shop agreement, they flatly refused, and published this statement:

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The point in dispute is purely one of our recognition of rules of an outside organization and its dictation in our several businesses; and this point we absolutely and positively insist that we can not and will not accept. . . . We decline to recognize any outside organization as the medium through which we and our men should deal, and if unable to convince our men of this we shall be obliged to readjust matters so that our own management of the business shall be recognized as the only one in the business.

Since then they have all become prominent members of the Employers' Association, which takes its main stand against the union shop as follows:

"To secure for employers and employes the freedom of contract in the matter of employment, irrespective of whether or not an employer or employe is a member of any organization."

Directly opposed to this, Organizer Fitzpatrick of the Chicago Federation of Labor, voicing their sentiments, makes this statement: "If we sign a contract that will bind our members to work with non-union men, we stultify ourselves and abrogate our pledge to our unions."

And the teamsters—how will they meet the merchants? If the honest leaders complete their work, and the forty thousand join in with organized labor, then the sympathetic strike will be seen again. It may be that the greatest struggles are yet to come, as the tremendous power once bound by Driscoll's machine is now directed by organization.

"What limit is there to the demands of the Teamsters' Union?" one merchant asked me. From a teamster leader I received this reply:

"We believe in steadily raising our standard of living. To raise this standard we need higher wages and shorter hours."

Time and money are the two great essentials for higher standards. If, when a man's standard of living is raised, the very raising makes him struggle for a still higher standard, then there is no limit to what the teamsters will demand as they grow more compact and fully appreciate their power. Many merchants claim that in a few years more the system of subways will destroy the teamsters' power. This remains to be seen. But if the teamsters are replaced by subway workers, then the teamsters' power is not destroyed, but only transferred to the subway workers, among whom a union will surely be formed.

Meanwhile, the fight is to continue. But how? Is the meat riot to be seen again? On the other hand, is the fee system to return? Or shall the fight be in the committee-room? Within one room was confined all the fighting over the last annual agreement between the van owners and their men. Here the committee almost came to blows, so hot was the discussion between employers and men; but after three weeks of this a conclusion was reached and a strike averted. Within one room was confined the fight a month ago between the commission merchants and their men, when they met for five evenings, often until two in the morning, but where at last a peaceable compromise was constructed. This certainly is the least wasteful mode of fighting. It rests with the union leaders and the employers to decide whether this mode shall prevail.

THE CLASS STRUGGLE LOOMS AHEAD.

And meanwhile, "the suffering public"—where does it stand? And how may it escape suffering from these surely increasing struggles? To this question a well-known labor leader gave me a somewhat startling answer:

"The public? Why, the public is going to disappear. Who is the public? Most of the people, I take it. In Chicago most of the people in the last three years have joined labor unions, and the rest—the hundred thousand clerks—they are coming, too. And the middle classes? Didn't you notice that thirty-five hundred teachers here have joined the American Federation of Labor? And how about the Newpaper Reporters' Union? If most of the people is the public, then the public is the labor union."

I took this reply to a prominent member of the Employers' Association. He read it and then said:

"I doubt if this at present is wholly true. It will be true in a few years more. Meanwhile keep your eyes on the Employers' Association. It is young yet. It is in that stage where it only attacks unions while they are striking. Soon it will attack between strikes. And then? These are doubtful times. The future is further off than it ever was."

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MRS. JOHN A. LOGAN
Elected President of the Red Cross Society

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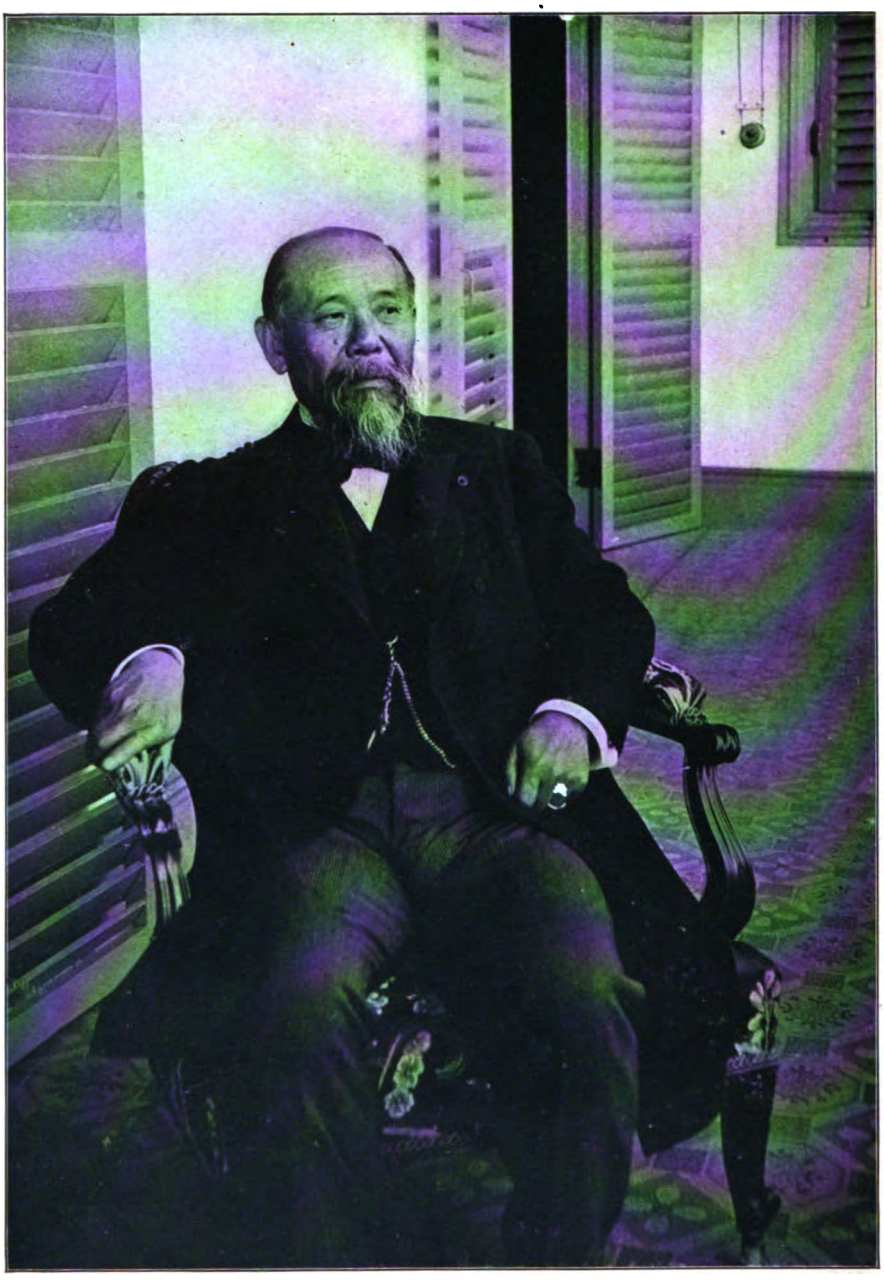

THE LATEST PORTRAIT OF MARQUIS ITO
Japan's Grand Old Man

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THE TRUTH ABOUT THE COWBOY

BY

ANDY ADAMS

AUTHOR OF "THE LOG OF A COWBOY," A TEXAS MATCHMAKER," ETC.

THE association of cattle with the human race goes far back of all written history or reliable tradition. The rearing of vast herds on the plains of the Southwest was only the turning of man to his most ancient industry. But in recording the chronicle of that epoch, undue credit has been given the man, while the cattle, primal as mankind, have been entirely overlooked. Yet here is a subject inviting the attention of the historian, old as creation itself and of no slight importance in the world's progress; and a subject not lacking, in the range cattle industry of the generation just past, a fitting climax.

The cowboy has been portrayed by cartoonist and artist as the most picturesque of western types. But let us strip him of those stage accessories so essential and necessary to the artistic—the chaparreras and belled spurs, the broad-brimmed sombrero and loosely-knotted kerchief, the flannel shirt and indispensable six-shooter, slouching languidly between hip and knee. Let us present the man as he was, and look at the type of men, once numbering a hundred thousand, rough, ragged, unshaven and frequently lousy. The only background to this man must be cattle, for the searcher after truth wants no lord without lands nor master without slaves. Who cares for the high-school cadets when the real veterans returning from the war are marching past in review?

It is the intention of this article to consider only the man who answered roll-call in camp. This carries us back about two decades, or to the zenith of the range cattle industry of the West, and long before the titles of Broncho Buster and

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Champion Rough Rider were originated or contested for by drivers of express wagons. Not that horses have become more vicious, but the bucking of a saddle animal then was part of the day's work, and not looked upon as anything more serious than a tight boot or early breakfast.

The ancestry of the best type of cowboy was southern. Long before Texas threw off the suzerainty of Mexico the first cattle ranches were established in what is now the Lone Star State. After San Jacinto, the veterans of that struggle pushed southward into the disputed territory, or westward wherever there was grass and water to sustain herds. Thus the nucleus of the old Spanish cattle, under new masters, multiplied until their numbers were legion. On the conclusion of the Civil War, following lines of latitude, came an influx of emigrants from the South, seeking a new country to begin life anew. About this time the demand for an outlet for the surplus cattle was met by the trail and a market in the North. Then followed the most romantic epoch in the history of range cattle. During this remarkable exodus, the ranchero was differentiated into the cowman, the cow hand into a cowboy. And being thus bred to the occupation, the Texans naturally became leaders of the craft.

To describe the rank and file of this once splendid army of horsemen is no easy task. The same ground has been thoroughly covered before by pen and pencil, and under limelight and slow curtain. To take any other than the popular view of this swaggering type, girdled with guns and rigged in the supposed regalia of the range, is to invite censure.

BRANDING TIME

Does the cowboy deserve credit for being a fine horseman when his work required him to be such or abandon his calling? True, the occupation was one that demanded the strenuous and weeded out the weakling. But are there no other avenues in life to-day that require daring and courage to meet the emergency with promptness and dispatch? "Yes, but not so romantic," some one answers. Romantic! Ask any man who ever made a trip over the trail if he was ever caught on the plains in a rain storm with no fuel but buffalo chips. Ask him how many

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days passed without being able to make a cup of coffee, and did he really enjoy saturated clothing and wet blankets, and how far from the wagon would the herd drift on such a night. Ask him if he ever worked in the North, when every morning he shook the drifting snow from his blankets, and in the eye of a blizzard, rode to turn a winter drift of cattle. If he answers in the affirmative, inquire further if he was ever lifted out of a saddle, benumbed with cold, and did he really feel that the occupation was a romantic one. If still unsatisfied, ask him from a sanitary standpoint, if there was anything would beat spreading his underclothing on an ant hill to remove the vermin.

IN A FERTILE WYOMING VALLEY

The cowboy was a man of few wants and simple tastes. As the type did not always pose for the artist, let us take a glance at him in every-day life. That he was self-reliant there is no doubt. His loyalty to his employer was only equaled by his independence. Being amenable to kindness and consideration, it was not uncommon for him to spend the best years of his life in the employ of one man, spurning all offers of promotion or advance in wages from other quarters. On a northern range and at the close of a hard summer's work, a soulless cattle company discharged the greater portion of its men and reduced the wages of the others. Among one of the few retained was an ungrateful Texan. When notified of the company's proposed action, by the superintendent, he replied, "That's all right, Mr. Blank. You can cut my wages in the mouth of winter if you see fit, but I'll give you notice right now that the first spear of green grass I see in the spring I'll quit you." And he did.

The range man's love of a horse is proverbial. There is an indescribable feeling of satisfaction in being mounted on a good horse; one that can go to the end of the road, or lead a stampede, if necessary, until dawn. But if one attempts to find out from reading what is the cowboy's preference for a mount, the "tough mustang" and "wiry little broncho" must be eliminated. The first case has yet to be recorded of one of the craft complaining that he was too well mounted. The cow horse, subsisting on grass alone, did not

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THE CAMP WAGON ON A TEXAS ROUNDUP

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possess the strength of the grain-fed or domestic animal. For this reason, circumstances differing, the cowboy used in his mount of horses anywhere from six to twelve head. Where the riding was constant, such as trail work or beef shipping, the better a man was mounted the more work he could do. Then there was the surety to the employer and a satisfaction to the employe, mutually insuring to the owner proper care of his cattle, and an assurance to his cowboy that he was mounted and equal to any emergency which could possibly arise. "Before I'd work for an outfit that mounts its men on such palfrey as yours does," said one cowpuncher contemptuously to another, "I'd quit them cold and get a job herding sheep. Bud, if those big augers that you work for ever hear of that fellow down in the Panhandle who claims he can teach a man to pace in ten lessons, they're sure to send for him and then we'll see you cantering around astride a broomstick, like you used to do when you was a kid."

The language usually attributed to the cowboy in magazines is a mistake. He was not given to verboseness, but when occasion required, there was no mistaking the meaning of his words, for they were straight from the shoulder and to the point. That he possessed a dialect, rich and expressive in the parlance of the range, there is no question. If from the South, numerous Spanish expressions were engrafted on his speech, and these were adopted into his vocabulary because they expressed his needs more clearly than their English equivalents. The usual contributions to periodical publications credit the range man with a heavy, labored form of speech. This style being free and unprotected by copyright, is supposed to supply the necessary local color and atmosphere, and with a few ornamental accessories, the type stands forth on the printed page. The West has been accused of lack of appreciation of the books written about her own country. True; for when words are put in a puppet's mouth that fail to carry conviction, the effort becomes disgusting. There is an old man in the West to-day who served as a guide under General Custer. He is illiterate; but any one who has ever heard him repeat conversations which passed between Custer and himself on their numerous campaigns, will realize that the grizzled, hero-loving frontiersman is authentically quoting his general. There is as clear a distinction between scout and soldier as if it had been expressed in different tongues.

A single exception to the contributed literature on the cattle country, written in the heavy labored dialect, are the Wolfville stories. Judging from the excellent insight which their author possesses of range life, the yarns and observations of the old cattleman, since they do not portray real life, can only be considered good burlesque. In that excellent romance, "The Virginian," we are indebted to Mr. Owen Wister for the statement that his hero possessed a double vocabulary. When speaking to ladies or superiors, he used good language, and, again, when among his own craft, he dropped into the easy vernacular of the range. The observation is correct, and might be borne out by citing numerous examples. Tom Horn, whose trial for murder recently shook the State of Wyoming, is an unlearned cowboy. All correspondents of the Denver papers agree that he used splendid English; that no question, however legal or technical, was ever asked him that he did not understand and his answers required no editing.

The cowboy from the South possessed an innate courtesy which no condition nor circumstance could wholly subdue. An incident comes to mind of a cook in my employ during the trail days. His name was Kelly. He was a cripple, and when not working, sought consolation in the cup that cheers. Having reached our destination in a northern cattle town, after the delivery of the herd, Kelly, not being under contract to return to Texas, was paid off and given his liberty. Without loss of time the cook proceeded to go on a protracted spree. During his debauch, two well-dressed ladies drove up in front of a drug store and made several efforts to attract the attention of a clerk inside, without accomplishing their purpose. The adjoining building was a general outfitting store, along the front and outside of which ran a rough bench, usually known as a sailor's rest or Greaser's landing. From among a crowd of convivial loafers occupying this seat, Kelly noticed the predicament of the two

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THE STRENGTH THE CALF DEVELOPS IS SOMETHING MARVELOUS

women. Arising with the best dignity at his command, he took his bearings for the carriage, and, hobbling over, hat in hand, asked the occupants if there was anything he could do for them. One of the ladies requested him to ask the clerk to step outside. He complied, and, as he turned to leave, the driver of the phaeton smilingly thanked him, when, with the inborn grace of a Chesterfield, he again lifted his hat in deprecation and slunk into the first open door which would hide him from view. What became of Kelly? After squandering his hard-earned wages, he found employment as cook with a government contractor, and went away with a haying outfit to put up forage at a frontier military post. Like a ship at sea, he went down behind the horizon of the plain, and we have never spoken each other since.

The cowboy was versatile and could sing in the choir or clerk in a bank. When he saw his occupation going from him, he naturally turned to the first calling for which he was fitted. The State of Nebraska maintains the appointive office of Inspector of County Treasuries, something similar to a national bank examiner. Irregularities and defalcations in state and county funds necessitated the office as a matter of protection for the public good. When the office was created, Ed Searle, of Ogalalla, an ex-cowboy and thoroughly qualified, was appointed by the governor to the position. And during his incumbency of that office there was not the defalcation of a single penny. Honesty became an enforced virtue under Searle's inspection.

The question of what became of the cowboy suggests itself. That the old West is a thing of the past no one will dare to dispute. An occasional glimpse of the former epoch might yet be found in isolated sections, but toned down and as free from any flavor of romance as an Illinois stock farm. A combination of unseen obstacles, such as successive severe winters, entailing serious losses in cattle, coupled with wire fences and railroads, killed the trail in a single year. Where, in '84, over seven hundred thousand cattle crossed the northern boundary of Texas at three fords on Red River, six years later not a single herd passed over

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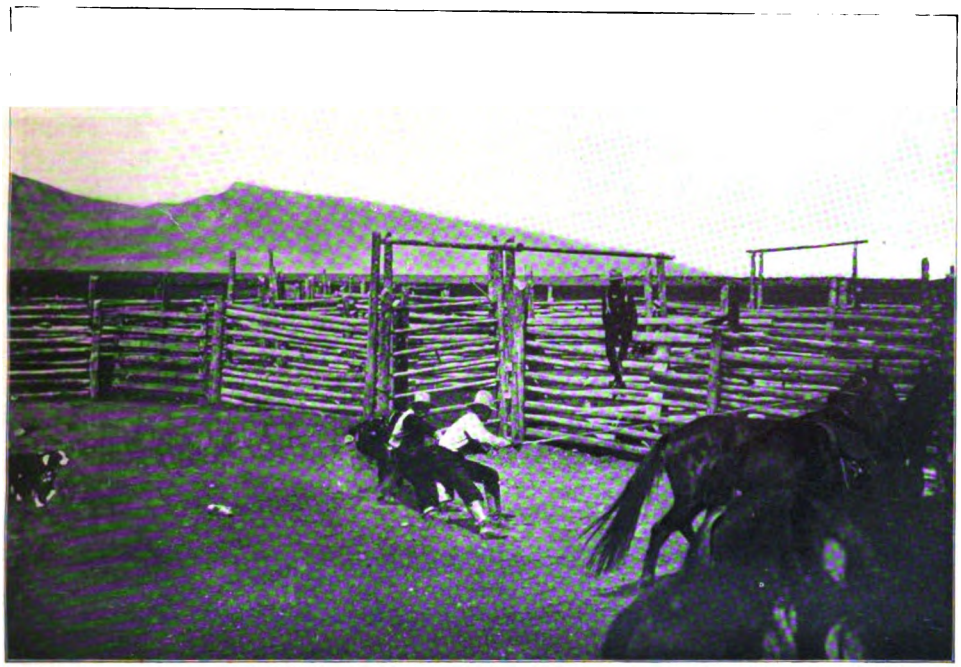

COWBOYS AT THE END OF A ROPE

the trail. Then the cow towns of the West became way stations, and the range man disappeared. But when the cowboy unsaddled for the last time, it was not his intention to turn from the range which he knew and loved. There were numerous occupations inviting him, and whether he opened a saloon or started a bank, he possessed an advantage in knowing the country and its people. While many of them can be found following the occupation of the small ranchman of the present day, the greater majority turned to other pursuits. But they are scattered wide and can be found among the staid citizens of nearly any western community.

In conclusion, if one attempts to epitomize this subject into the briefest possible summary, he could command nothing more to the point than this from "The Story of the Cowboy," a work of historical worth. Says its author, Mr. Hough: "The cowboy was simply a part of the West. He who did not understand the one could never understand the other. Never was any character more misunderstood than he; and so thorough was his misrepresentation that part of the public even to-day will have no other way of looking at him. They see the wide hat and not the honest face beneath it. They remember the wild momentary freaks of the man, but forget his lifetime of hard work and patient faithfulness. They insist upon the distorted mask and ask not for the soul beneath it. If we care truly to see the cowboy as he was, and seek to give our wish the dignity of a real purpose, the first intention should be to study the cowboy in connection with his surroundings. Then perhaps we may not fail in our purpose, but come near to seeing him as he actually was, the product of primitive, chaotic, elemental forces, rough, barbarous and strong. Then we shall love him; because at heart each of us is a barbarian, too, and longing for that past the ictus of whose heredity we can never eliminate from our blood. Then we shall feel him appeal to something hid deep down in our common nature. And this is the way we should look at the cowboy of the passing West; not as a curiosity, but as a product; not as an eccentric driver of horned cattle, but as a man suited to his times."

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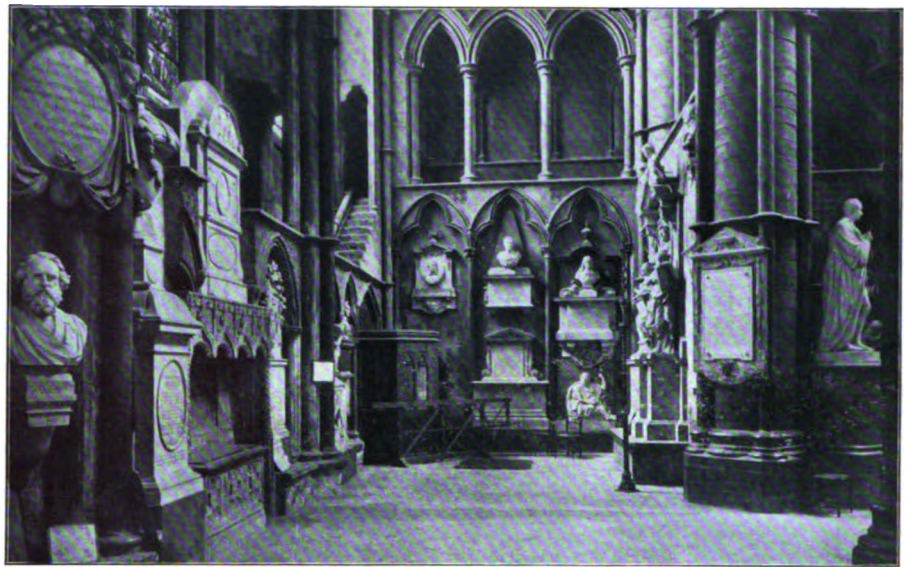

THE POETS' CORNER, WESTMINSTER ABBEY

THE AMERICAN TOURIST FROM THE BRITISH POINT OF VIEW

BY

E. DOUGLAS SHEILDS

JUST when the swallows are growing accustomed to their summer quarters in England, migratory birds of another feather appear on the scene. The arrival of both is now taken as a matter of course, but while nature has made all preparation for her winged children, it takes a host of men and women to have things in readiness for the, as yet wingless, tourist, the visitor who has come to see, and come to buy.

THE AMERICAN AND THE SHOPKEEPER.

In Edinburgh, Glasgow and other northern cities, tartans in all their bravery, and blazoned with their warlike names, tempt within the—super-Scots, shall we call them? Thistles, dirks and claymore in silver, gold and cairngorm, call to the romantic in human nature and call not in vain. In Ireland, from Blarney Castle to the Giant's Causeway, shamrocks in glitter of green and diamond vie with green Connemara marble and black bog oak carved by the natives. In more cosmopolitan England, and especially in London, the shop windows have not such distinctive contents, but the largest collection of the most beautiful wares of the world are probably to be found there. In many instances, enticements are held out, such as prices marked in dollars and cents and notices in the windows to say that American money is received. It is amusing to see phrases from across the Atlantic printed in praise of the latest fashions. And, truth to tell, there is justice in this, for most of them have been seen in New York and San Francisco before the British have had a chance to pass verdict upon them.

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To any one who knows the generosity of the American people, it is surprising to hear in different circles complaints as to their lack of that very quality. In business they have the name of being hard bargainers, and of wishing to get twenty-five shillings in return for twenty. Tourists seem to fall into four groups: the wealthy who do not mind how much they spend so long as they get what they want, but who, nevertheless, as a mercantile people have a hatred of being "done"; then there are those, also wealthy, who do not mind how much they pay, but who always grumble at what they get, perhaps because wealth does not bring them the gilded happiness they had anticipated. These belong to the newly rich class. Thirdly, there are those who have little money and who wish to make it go as far as possible. Then there is the large class who, because unobtrusive and willing to take for granted they are being fairly treated, almost escape notice.

There is always a glorious uncertainty as to the American tourist—a being who loves a bargain, but also a being who cheerfully pays any sum for a thing on which he has set his heart. Every purchase is a compromise between those two characteristics, and the drama that is played around each bargain would be interesting to the student of human nature. The acute vender in most cases protects himself by adding to the price of his goods. An Italian will ask twenty *lire* when he usually sells the article at two. The buyer boldly halves the sum, but agrees to meet the sorrowful Italian half way and pays sixteen *lire*. A man engaged to map out a tour for a millionaire said: "I had to add to the price, knowing he would bargain; the result was he paid £2,000 more than I should otherwise have asked."

THE TOURIST'S CLOTHES.

It is curious that the words, "American tourist," conjure up before the British imagination a woman. This may be because there are really fewer men than women coming from the United States. It may be for other reasons. The male American tourist is not, to use the ex-

MELROSE ABBEY

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pressive Scots' word, so "kenspeckle" as his fellow countrywomen are. His national traits differentiate him less pi quantly from the males of other nations. The American woman, on the other hand, stands out from among all others because of certain marked characteristics. Clothes play an important part in this, but still more is it the way the clothes are worn and the spirit which breathes through them that announces the nationality of the wearer. It is extremely interesting to note how those clothes unite, just as the people do, the leading characteristics of several European nations, and yet add to them an entirely new and national tone. They possess the appearance of having been *built,* which is a distinctively English attribute and not possessed by French tailoring, superior as it is in beauty of line. This French cut the American tailor has very nearly equaled. The slight tilt up at the back of the short skirt is borrowed from the French, and also the tilt forward of the hat. The French woman wears her clothes as if they were mere pleasant fancies to be succeeded shortly by others as pleasing. But the air of the wearer is different in the case of the Atlantic cousin. Her clothes are evidently chosen with deliberation as an eminently suitable costume in which to travel to damp, but attractive, England, and there's an end on't. It is meant to last the trip and in the majority of cases in all probability it does.

THE IRREPRESSIBLE TOURIST

How quiet the British Isles would be were it not for this delightful yearly invasion! The exciting rush for the front seats on the coaches at the Trossachs and elsewhere would lose its zest were the whole-hearted and eager Americans not there. To what extent they take possession of the country they do not perhaps quite realize themselves. A party of Scots visited a historic town in their fatherland one summer's day, intending to hire a carriage and drive to the places of interest. But on their arrival there was not one vehicle of any kind to be had. "Three hundred tourists" was the explanation given. There were other nationalities among them, but the great majority were "Americans." This fleeting species of tourists, "here to-day and there to-morrow," does not find favor in the hearts of the natives. One old countryman on being asked the reason said: "Oh, they dinna leave muckle behind them—they kind." Later on, when some of the three hundred in wagonettes and coaches passed a cricket ground where a school match was proceeding, they waved their handkerchiefs and cheered in such an infectious way that the islanders pulled out their handkerchiefs and gave an answering cheer. The headmaster of the school in front of which this cricket field stands has had considerable, though unsought-for, personal experience of American tourists. They very often walk in at the gates and speak to the boys. They even walk the distance to the house and go round it, surveying everything. Once, when writing in his library, he was surprised by a fair tourist who peered in at the window and smiled pleasantly to him when discovered. On another occasion, when teaching in an assembly-room at the back, he looked out of the window and was aware of two blue-veiled tilted-hatted Americans coming out of his coal house! On the other hand, he once noticed a man who came into the field and was modestly, and at a distance, watching the cricket. Attracted by his appearance he went up to him and greeted him. They became friendly, the tourist was invited in to tea, and, at his request, shown over the school. He was interested in British schools, he explained, because several friends of his were about to start one in New England "on English lines." He, in his turn, gave his card and a warm invitation to his host to visit him should he ever cross the Atlantic.

Not far from this selfsame lowland Scottish town are three sister mountains, renowned in legend and also written about by Sir Walter Scott. One July evening the South of Scotland Brigade of the Border Rifle Volunteers was encamped on them for its annual summer campaign and was expecting a night attack. At officer's mess about eighty were seated in their large tent, when they observed not the enemy, but two girls peering in at the windows. Afterward, when the men had moved into the anteroom, they were waiting about the door. At last, when some of the men had gone outside and were studying the hills in the fading light, the

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two slipped into the anteroom, despite the men still there. One ventured into the messroom, whence she emerged with a menu card in her hand, saying, in an unmistakably American voice, "They haven't left a green thing." The colonel, Sir Richard Waldie Griffiths, was vastly amused, and when his regiment of the Border Rifles got away from camp that night he gave the word that the countersign was to be "the American Girl."

TYPES

The only feature of British life that the American tourist does not see is himself. As sure as summer comes, as sure as Parliament rises at Easter and sets to work in grim earnest at the end of the recess, so surely are the London streets invaded by a resolute army. That army has become part of the local color of the quiet stately Temple Inns, the mean, narrow streets enriched by a storied past, the busy thoroughfares in which steadfast and undisturbed they consult their guidebooks. What Londoner has not seen them, Baedeker in hand, gazing at the ancient Temple church, with its beautiful Norman architecture, or looking at the chair Samuel Johnson is said to have sat in? Sometimes a smile is roused by the sight of these earnest visitors, but most often envy is the strongest sentiment they arouse. A citizen rarely has time to enjoy his own city.

Most tourists are fully alive to the delights of riding on top of a 'bus. There one sometimes sees a family party, say a father, mother and two girls. The mother, true to her reputation, tries to improve the shining hour and even the raining hour by pointing out the different buildings passed—Somerset House, The National Gallery—while the father looks on and listens in silence. The two girls are, however, much more interested in the present than in the past, in life than in history. It is slightly raining and with pretty

BLARNEY CASTLE

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THE LAKES OF KILLARNEY

politeness they are trying to keep their amusement from breaking into laughter as they pull round them the somewhat scanty waterproof apron provided by the Omnibus Company. The front seat of a 'bus is especially sought after, partly because of the splendid view it affords and partly because some of the drivers are very communicative and entertaining. It is not often, however, that they utter such delightfully unconscious truths as fell to the share of the writer. The ride was down Gray's Inn Road, past Verulam Buildings, the Square in which Sir Walter Raleigh once planted a tree, and past the ancient hall in which Queen Bess was present at a performance of "The Comedy of Errors," not long after it had been written. "Those are surely very old buildings," said the passenger, pointing to Staple Inn, an old "Queen Anne" building in Holborn. "It is to be hoped they will not pull them down." "They won't do that," was the emphatic reply; "the county council has just spent £2,000 in revenerating them."

One thing that strikes terror into the heart of the defenseless native is that the invaders know much more than he about everything in his own country. "The fall before," said a man to the writer, "they get all the books on the subject and read them. When they arrive they know all about the history of the places. All that they wish to do is to see them. In fact, all that some wish is to be able to say that they have seen them. 'Ah, Goldsmith's tomb, Wolsey's palace?' they ask, and, giving the things a look, they pass on to the next on the program. One man saw London in a day." The result of this mode of seeing Europe is to be met with on many a vessel laden with tourists returning to their native land. "Well, yes," said a charming young girl from Albany a day or two after setting sail from Glasgow. "I guess we have seen pretty well everything. We began," and then followed a list of the principal places of interest in the British Isles and Europe, interspersed with comments. "Venice was beautiful, the moon was full,"

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or "The Bridge of Sighs was much smaller than I had expected," a remark which irresistibly reminded one of Tom Hood's pun on the subject. At Rome there had been a great ecclesiastical function with a stately progress through the streets. Everywhere they had arrived just at the right time. At last they made their way to Scotland to see the lakes before embarking at Glasgow. "We spent two days at Loch Lomond in the hotel and it rained all the time with a thick mist, so that we saw nothing," said the fair Albanian. "What a pity," a sympathetic listener exclaimed. "Oh, we were only too thankful, we rested." And, indeed, they were absolutely exhausted in mind and body—one could not tell about the "estate." They lay in their long deck chairs, with no strength to resist *mal de mer,* and only too thankful not to have to see or say anything. Rolled up in their rugs, they reminded one of the passengers of a sermon once heard in the north of Scotland. The preacher was noted as an antiquarian and an eccentric, and for his negative qualities as a preacher. He had been seen before the service taking his usual short cut to church, running across fields and climbing stiles with dexterity. As was his custom, he put his hand into the bag hanging beside his pulpit desk, drew out the first slip of paper that came and began to preach on the text and the headings written there. On this occasion his opening words were: "Brethren, we can draw many lessons from the mummyfied body of Joseph."

There is no doubt that the British find the open, unconventional ways of their American visitors very attractive. There is a genuine simplicity and directness about even the most audacious which appeals very strongly to them. The typical English tourist was, until recently, so supercilious and superior a being, so far above admiration of anything he might see outside of England, that the great mystery always was what induced him to leave his country. Now, however, this is rapidly changing. This may be partly due to the influence of the undisguised enthusiasm of the American tourists, an enthusiasm which by no means disguises a critical attitude of mind toward British institutions and customs, but which goes far to make them the welcome visitors they are.

CHRISTIANS IN JAPANESE POLITICS

BY

ERNEST W. CLEMENT

PRINCIPAL OF DUNCAN ACADEMY, TOKYO; AUTHOR OF "HANDBOOK OF MODERN JAPAN

ONE of the most significant evidences of the influence of Christianity upon the civilization of Japan is manifested in political circles. It is noteworthy that the first step taken by Japan in local self-government, by the opening of provincial assemblies in 1880, resulted in the election of an unusually large number of Christians to membership in those assemblies. Their election was due chiefly to their high reputation and established character as men of honesty and integrity. And their success in those positions was owing in no small degree to the training they had enjoyed in church assemblies in association with foreign missionaries. It was not strange, therefore, that, when constitutional government was established in Japan, Christians were found in disproportionately large numbers in the First Imperial Diet, and have continued to obtain in every election more seats than they were entitled to, if the number of Christians in the whole empire be compared with the entire population. Moreover, the speaker of the House of Representatives in the First Diet was Mr. Nakajima, a Christian. Mr. Shimada,

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another prominent Christian, has served five terms as vice-speaker, and the late Mr. Kataoka was five times elected to the speaker's chair.

The present (twentieth) Diet contains seven Christian members. They include one Baptist (Mr. Tamura, of Tochigi Prefecture); two Congregationalists (Mr. Hinata, of Gumma Prefecture, and Mr. Yokoi, of Okayama Prefecture), and four Methodists (Mr. Ebara, of Tokyo, Mr. Shimada, of Yokohama, Mr. Nemoto, of Ibaraki Prefecture, and Mr. Tatsukawa, of Nagano Prefecture). Mr. Shimada was originally a Presbyterian, drifted into Unitarianism, but has recently united with a Methodist church. He is editor of the *Mainichi Shimbun*, a Tokyo daily, and is very active in social reforms, especially in attacks upon monopolies, the tobacco and the liquor traffics and legalized prostitution. Mr. Nemoto is also very prominent on account of his activity in temperance work. His anti-tobacco bill, prohibiting the sale of tobacco to minors, was passed by both houses a few years ago, and his anti-liquor bill, prohibiting the sale of liquor to minors, has only barely failed to pass and will be presented as long as he is a member. It is interesting, by the way, to note that he is one of the representatives of a large tobacco-growing district, but regularly wins his election in spite of the bitter opposition of the tobacco and liquor men and the Buddhists. Mr. Yokoi, formerly a Congregationalist minister and late president of the Doshisha University, Kyoto, is quite well known in Christian circles in America. Mr. Ebara is one of the leading educators of Tokyo, and was prominently mentioned as a candidate for speaker. He was one of the three persons whose names were presented to the Emperor as nominees of the House of Representatives for that position. But the Emperor, in accordance with an unwritten law, appointed Mr. Matsuda, who had received the largest number of votes.

The proportion of seven out of a total membership of 379 makes one Christian for every fifty-four members. The total number of nominal Christians in Japan is about one hundred and fifty thousand, who may be said to represent a Christian community of about three hundred thousand. Among these about fifty thousand are Protestants, who thus represent a community of about one hundred thousand. If, therefore, we reckon the population of Japan at fifty millions we get one Protestant for every thousand of the people; while the seven Protestant members of the House of Representatives stand one to about every fifty. This is one of the clearest proofs that, in general, the influence of Christianity upon Japan must not be estimated merely by the number of believers. Moreover, in the Diet and in party councils and political affairs in general the Christian men in politics exercise an influence out of proportion to their mere numbers, and may be counted on to stand up for right principles. There is also a large number of prominent men who, although making no profession themselves, are nevertheless favorable to Christianity, especially in its movements for social and moral reforms. It is the powerful influence of Christian sentiment that abolished, and keeps abolished, legal prostitution in the Gumma Prefecture.

In this connection, it may not be out of place to refer to a few phases of the influence of Christianity upon the political institutions of new Japan. In old Japan Shintoism, Buddhism and Confucianism all encouraged absolutism and feudalism, while constitutional government, representative institutions and local self-government are fruits of Christian civilization. The old idea of impersonality, by which the individual was swallowed up in the family, the clan and the nation and was called a "thing," could not long survive the Christian teachings of individual worth, rights and responsibility, now acknowledged in the social and political institutions of new Japan. Moreover, the doctrine of religious liberty, affirmed in the Japanese constitution, is of Christian origin.

In general, it may be stated that the leaders of new Japan are favorable to Christianity and are reconstructing the nation largely on Christian lines and with Christian ideals. Christianity is not an officially "established" religion in Japan, but its influence is rapidly increasing along all lines of civilization. The gospel of Jesus Christ is a positive force making for social amelioration and civic righteousness in Japan to-day.

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THE INTELLECTUAL LIFE OF CHICAGO

BY

WILLIAM MORTON PAYNE

ASSOCIATE EDITOR OF "THE DIAL"

A NOTE from my old friend, Joseph Kirkland, dated twelve years ago, lies before me, and reads as follows: "I shall send you in a few days two photos, from which you will please choose one to use, and one to put in some old, half-forgotten album, to dig out when the *Journal* managing editor some day says: 'You knew Kirkland pretty well, didn't you? Please give us half a stickful about him for Saturday.'" It was only about two years before this forecast became event, and there devolved upon me the sad duty of penning a brief tribute to the memory of the writer—the man dear to his associates, and the novelist whose position among American men of letters is both assured and honorable.

I mention this incident for two reasons. One of them is that it illustrates the fact—not yet generally realized—that Chicago already has a past, even in the history of her literature. For we can go back of the author of "Zury" and "The McVeys" and come upon the names of Chicagoans who wrote noteworthy books for which readers are still found. Without being too antiquarian in our research, we can find among poets such men as Horatio Nelson Powers and Benjamin F. Taylor, and among scientific and historical writers such men as John W. Foster and Isaac N. Arnold. These men died many years ago, comparatively speaking. Of scholars and writers whom we have lost during the decade or so just past—since that World's Fair period which marked for us a sort of artistic and literary renaissance—there is William F. Poole *(clarum et venerabile nomen)*, there are George Howland and David Swing, there are George F. Root and Edward G. Mason, there are Joseph Kirkland and Eugene Field and Mary Hartwell Catherwood and Eliza Allen Starr. These are but a few out of many who have become to us memories; they at least sufficiently attest the proposition that Chicago may now boast a respectable past in both scholarship and literature.

The second reason why I made use of the incident which opens this paper is that it recalls a date that marked, as has already been suggested, a sort of turning-point in our intellectual development. It was to help out in the illustration of an article on "Literary Chicago" which the editor of *The New England Magazine* had commissioned me to write, that I asked Major Kirkland for the photograph which he sent me in duplicate. That was the year in which Columbus' discovery really should have been celebrated, and the year before the actual throwing open of the White City's hospitable gates. Looking back upon that stock-taking of Chicago's culture twelve years ago, I feel a sense of surprise at two things. One of them is that there was already so much to record. The other is that the subsequent years have so augmented and freshened the forces of our intellectual endeavor as to create a distinctly new period, and make the annals of the earlier one read like ancient history.

There are, of course, and happily, connecting links. The venerable Robert Collyer, and the still more venerable William Mathews, are still engaged in active intellectual work, although now in cities far distant from Chicago, with whose activities they were once so closely identified. Among the old-time literary workers who still make Chicago their home, the most conspicuous living figures are that of Mr. Francis F. Browne, founder and editor of the old *Lakeside Monthly* and of the present *Dial*, biographer of Lincoln and collector of the poetry produced by the Civil War, and that of Mr. George P.

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Upton, graceful essayist and veteran among musical critics of the first rank in this country. The younger reputations of Mr. Henry B. Fuller and Miss Harriet Monroe had already acquired momentum twelve years ago, and it has gone on increasing with their continued production in the respective fields of prose fiction and serious verse.

With the exception, however, of some half dozen authors who had come into some degree of prominence before 1892, the literary output of Chicago during the past twelve years has been in the main a new product, in part resulting from the development of native talent in an atmosphere no longer absolutely discouraging to literary impulses, in part to the attraction of the great city for thinking men and women from many regions. On the whole, the factor resulting from attraction has proved more important than that of native growth, owing to the predominating influence of a single institution—the University of Chicago—upon our intellectual development. The period of existence already spanned by that institution is exactly the twelve-year period with which we are now concerned, and the concomitant broadening of our intellectual life is something more than a coincidence, although it is fair to assume that without the university we should still have had much to chronicle.

While it is hardly fair that Chicago should claim for her own the work done antecedently to their arrival by the eminent scholars who were invited to join forces with the university during its opening years, yet she may lay unquestioned claim to what they have done since they became identified with the community. Thus the late Eduard von Holst's "Constitutional History of the United States" is ours only by a sort of annexation, but the uncompromising political idealism of that great scholar, the voice raised and the pen wielded so earnestly in the cause of righteousness during the years when he was working with us—these are most indubitably ours in the sense both of embodied thoughts and of inspiring memories. And we may say something similar of the work of many of his associates, whose reputations were already achieved before they came to us —for which reason, indeed, they were invited to cast in their lot with the new institution. We may say it of Professor J. Laurence Laughlin, one of our foremost authorities on economic science; of Professor Paul Shorey, whose reputation as an interpreter of Greek literature and philosophy was such as to place him in the front rank of classical scholars; of Professor Small, in sociology, and Professor James in political science; of Professor Chamberlain, in geology, and Professor Whitman, in biology; of Professor Donaldson, in neurology, and Professor Loeb, in physiology, and Professor Michelson, in physics.

These names, with others that might be added were it not for the danger of making this paper seem too much like a catalogue, may serve to indicate the important accession at once made to the intellectual forces of Chicago by the establishment of her great university. And this was only a beginning, for the younger men who have since joined the ranks have materially added both to the strength of the institution and to its leavening influence upon the community. Nor should we omit to mention the two older universities at Evanston and Lake Forest, near enough to Chicago to be directly tributary to her intellectual life, and continually helpful in persuading her youth to worthier aims than those of money-getting and material prosperity.

Of the aggregate intellectual productivity of the University of Chicago, a fair measure is furnished by the imposing series of volumes, recently completed, and known by the general name of Decennial Publications. Hardly less in importance are the numerous periodicals issuing from that institution, and constituting, in most cases, the chief organs of American scholarship in their respective subjects. And beyond these general acknowledgments of indebtedness, there are individual achievements that must be instanced. Two of these stand out so distinctly that specific mention will not be thought invidious. It is matter for much pride that the university should have introduced to the public one of the best of contemporary American novelists and one of the most remarkable of contemporary American poets. These phrases are, if anything, unduly conservative, for the novels of Professor Robert Herrick—

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"The Gospel of Freedom," "The Web of Life," and "The Common Lot"—can more than hold their own in any company of our recent fiction, while the "Poems" of Professor William Vaughn Moody, his "Masque of Judgment" and "Fire-Bringer," are of such extraordinary quality as to leave their author with hardly an equal among our poets of the younger generation, whether in America or England.

But the university represents, after all, only a small part of the higher life of Chicago, although it has brought an important increment to our intellectual forces, and it is time to ask what has been done in other quarters. A rather imposing list might be made of the books produced by writers of this city during the past twelve years, and it would be a list including, besides imaginative literature, examples of most of the categories recognized by librarians in their classifications. It would compare favorably with the similar exhibit from almost any other of our large centers of population, excepting only New York and Boston, which cities, from their control of the business of book publishing, naturally draw to themselves or develop an undue proportion of the people who write books. I have no intention of crowding such a list into these columns, but will be content to mention, almost at random, a few of the more noteworthy names of authors and titles of their books.

When I made my rough survey of the field twelve years ago, Mr. Henry B. Fuller was known to a few readers as the writer of certain delicate fantasies which were caviar to the general, but keenly appreciated by persons of cultivated taste. Since that time Mr. Fuller has become a novelist in the more conventional sense through the production of "The Cliff-Dwellers" and "With the Procession." That he has not altogether escaped from the temptings of a vagrant imagination is, however, made evident by his recurrence to fantasy in "The Last Refuge," the most charming of all his books, and in "Under the Skylights," the most deliciously satirical. Mr. Hamlin Garland is as much a Chicagoan as he is anything, and his novels have gone on steadily acquiring grasp and amenity, until, in "Hesper," they have been made to include a work that deserves cordial commendation. Mr. H. C. Chatfield-Taylor, as persevering as he is ambitious, has been producing better and better books all the time. The last of them was "The Crimson Wing," a slightly too theatrical story of the Franco-Prussian War; the next of them—if the purpose and preparation of several years do not fail—is to be a historical romance having Molière for its central figure. Mr. I. K. Friedman, a novelist who has chosen good masters, and who has particularly enlisted his sympathies on the side of the poor and the oppressed, has given us, in "By Bread Alone," a striking study of the present-day antagonism between labor and capital. Mr. Will Payne has taken for his special province the business life of the present time, and has produced a series of novels—"The Money Captain," "The Story of Eva" and "Mr. Salt"—which are made very attractive by their deft commingling of practical affairs and sentimental considerations. Turning for a moment from fiction to poetry, I must find space to mention Mr. Wallace Rice's "The Flying Sands," "Under the Stars" and "Ballads of Valor and Victory," three volumes of highly creditable verse, two of which were produced in collaboration with other writers.

Women writers also claim a share of my attention. Miss Harriet Monroe has recently published "The Passing Show," a collection of small plays in verse, which exhibits an advance in firmness over her earlier poems, and distinctly deepens the impression previously made by her work. Mrs. Elia W. Peattie has given us several volumes of novels and short stories, among which "The Beleaguered Forest" stands out as a production of singular charm. The historical romance is represented by Miss Ottilie Liljencrantz, whose "Thrall of Leif the Lucky" and "Ward of King Canute" take us back to the old days of the Norsemen, and do much to revivify a heroic past. Miss Margaret Potter (Mrs. Black), in "Uncanonized," "The House of Mailly" and "The Castle of Twilight," has also given us historical fiction of fine furnishing and color. Miss Edith Wyatt, on the other hand, is strictly modern in her choice of subjects, as illustrated by her "True Love" and "Every One His Own Way."

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I have mentioned only a few names; many others almost equally deserving have been left untouched. And I have made no mention at all of books of history and biography, of science and art, or of collections of miscellaneous essays, although there are noteworthy examples of all these classes. Enough has probably been done in the way of enumeration, however, to make quite evident the fact that the appearance of a book produced in Chicago is no longer, as it was but a few years ago, a rather exceptional occurrence, but is so every-day an affair that even our newspapers, provincial as they still are in many matters, do not now find it necessary to herald every such publication as a cause for renewed wonder and self-gratulation.

The publishing interests of the community have made rapid advances during the past few years, and the lists of books now issued with the Chicago imprint are no longer regarded by the trade as an almost negligible quantity, as was the case not so very long ago. In the matter of periodicals, I have already spoken of the important series issuing from the University of Chicago Press, and with them should be mentioned *The Monist* and *The Open Court,* like them appealing to small although important constituencies. The long-continued existence and usefulness of these two periodicals has been made possible by the munificence of Mr. E. C. Hegeler, who has from the beginning provided for their support. Of *The Dial* it would not become me to speak, and I presume that the editor of THE WORLD TO-DAY would discourage any praise of his labors in these pages. The Chicago newspapers are of all kinds and colors, except the one kind which hardly exists anywhere—the kind that is conducted without much regard to the question of circulation, and with an eye single to the requirements of truth and dignity and good taste. That sort of newspaper we are not likely to get until some exceptionally intelligent philanthropist discovers the fact that such an enterprise is crying for endowment.

There is a kind of intellectual life in every community that goes on without much exposure to the public gaze, and that accomplishes a vast amount of useful work in raising the standards of culture. It is the life that comprises such diverse things as club organizations, social settlements and lecture associations. This quiet ferment is unceasingly at work in Chicago, to a degree that is equaled in few other large communities. It may be discovered not only in the activities of such conspicuous and lasting institutions as the Chicago Literary Club, the Historical Society, the Twentieth Century Club, the Fortnightly, the Woman's Club, Hull House and the extension work of the University of Chicago, but also in hundreds of more obscure and shifting manifestations. It is going on everywhere and all the time, and is ministering to the spiritual needs of the uncounted thousands who can not make culture the main object of their lives, but who appreciate its virtue and are unwilling that it should be left out altogether. Considered in this respect, Chicago offers a pleasing object of contemplation to the student of sociology, who will be more and more surprised the further his investigations are pursued.

The collections of books now accessible to students in Chicago are of such importance as to prove a lure to literary workers. The four great libraries—Public, Newberry, Crerar and University—now have an aggregate of upward of a million volumes, and there are besides many smaller special collections of importance. The artistic life of Chicago, as centered in and about the Art Institute, has already been made the subject of a special study in these pages, and a similar study might profitably be made of the musical life of the city, with the thirteen completed years of the Orchestral Association as its nucleus. Both art and music have suffered many discouragements, but the conditions surrounding them are slowly growing healthier from year to year. The vast public school system of the city has taken a renewed lease of vigorous life under the present administration, and is rapidly being put upon a sound modern basis, both as to the forces which the work enlists and the healthful coordination of its various functions. Here also there are severe discouragements, resulting from inadequate revenue, but the best is being made of the situation, and the progress of late years has been very marked.

Perhaps the best test of the intellectual

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activities of any community is to be found in their indirect outcome as reflected in the manifestations of the civic spirit in the public at large. Of this spirit Chicago has never had any lack, but it has hitherto had too much of the character of boastfulness and pride in material advancement, too little of the willingness to look disagreeable facts squarely in the face, and the disposition to remedy the evils that have been painfully obvious to outsiders. There is, on the whole, nothing more gratifying in our recent history than the gradual substitution of the spirit of inquiry for the spirit of vaunting, and the increased determination not to be satisfied with leaving well enough (or ill enough) alone, but to be strenuous in the endeavor to increase civic attractiveness and to promote the cause of civic righteousness. We have learned that from the standpoint of sanitation, of est and of morality, both public and pri our conditions leave much to be desired, and with the growth of this self-knowledge we have devised, and are now engaged in devising, the necessary agencies for the required reforms. What has been done in the matter of municipal government alone has made Chicago the wonder of American cities, and the spirit which has already purified her city council is now actively at work in many other directions and with many other civic ends in view. Unless all present indications are deceptive, it is a spirit which will no sooner accomplish one purpose than it will set about the accomplishment of others, for the countless voluntary laborers whom it has enlisted are not of a kind to rest upon their oars when new work remains to be done.

AMERICAN RULE IN PORTO RICO

BY

JAMES S. HARLAN

FORMERLY ATTORNEY-GENERAL OF PORTO RICO

DURING the summer of 1901 three young lads arrived at San Juan from Chicago. From the letters they presented it appeared that they had come to Porto Rico to grow up with the country. Instead of following the traditional advice to go west, they had gone to the easternmost geographical point in the United States. But it was the "go-west" idea that animated them. They had thought that Porto Rico, like a western territory, was a new country and that opportunity would surely knock at the door of those that were there ready to open when the knock came. One said that he was an electrician. Another had been a stenographer. The third thought that he could turn his hand to almost any kind of work. All were strong and vigorous and ready for any reasonable hardships and adversities. Apparently the fact that the people of the island spoke a language that they did not understand had not seemed to them a matter of much consequence. The climate and other local conditions were altogether different from those they were accustomed to, but this did not deter them from seeking their fortunes in the new country. They belonged, in fact, to that self-reliant, hardy class of Americans which has been and still is the mainstay of the great West, and is building up its territories into states.

Their reasoning was perhaps sound enough, but their premises were wrong. Porto Rico was not a new country. While Chicago was still a military post on the Indian frontier, San Juan had been a well-built, walled city for over two centuries, and Porto Rico an organized community for a hundred years longer. Instead of being a new country, Porto Rico was moss-grown with age. Instead of offering to brawn and muscle abundant opportunity for making a living, it was old enough in the ways and necessities of civilization to require laws against vagrancy. Instead of being sparsely settled, it was so dense in population as

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PRINCESS PROMENADE, SAN JUAN

to produce want in some of the more important centers of activity. Instead of having forests to hew down and roads to build, there were street corners where for centuries men had stopped to gossip and chat, and highways that had been used for generations. The insular archives were musty with the dust of time when the Dutch bought Manhattan Island from the Indians. At about the same time the Dutch fleet descended upon San Juan and after laying siege to it destroyed, among other things, a large classical library then in existence in that city, a century or more before libraries were being seriously thought of on the mainland. The raising of sugar cane was an industry in Porto Rico before tobacco was sent from Virginia to astonish and delight the club men of London. The three would-be pioneers had arrived in fact in a small country, it is true, but nevertheless in a country of banks and chambers of commerce, of hospitals and libraries, of railroad and telegraph lines, of electric cars, electric lights and telephones.

It is not surprising then that within a week these three young fellows were compelled to cable home for funds to take them back to Chicago. They had found every walk of life full to overflowing, every vacancy eagerly sought and quickly filled by the natives. There were enough electricians. And there were plenty of men that could turn their hands to any kind of work, and were glad to do it at almost less of a daily wage than an American mechanic is accustomed to live on. They even found that there were people in the island that were hungry; some because they could not work when there was no work to be done, and some because, like others of their kind the world over, they would not work even if there were work to be done.

Doubtless other Americans have gone to Porto Rico to seek employment or opportunity, and have learned to their cost that it is not a new country welcoming the newcomer and providing him with work; but on the contrary a country very much older than the United States and with plenty of its own people to do all the work that needs to be done. The truth is that Porto Rico is not a place for an American without some means. And it is not a place for large success unless his fortune approaches the comfortable point of being able to call itself capital. American money in large amounts has gone into electric railways, into banks, sugar, tobacco and coffee plantations, and into fruit culture; and the general understanding is that the men interested in these enterprises are receiving fair returns on their investments. There is still room for further industrial and agricultural development on a more or less large scale. A number of Americans of smaller means have bought new lands and are working them into small orange groves. Such properties do not become productive for several years, and in the meantime, having some resources, the owners can afford to wait for results. And the results will doubtless be greater

THE CLEAN STREETS OF SAN JUAN

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there than in Florida and California. For, in addition to the total absence of frost, nature does much work in Porto Rico that men have to be employed to do elsewhere. It is said that coffee also may be cultivated with profit on small plantations.

But for the workingman, the mechanic and the man without resources or with very small means, Porto Rico offers a narrow and restricted outlook. A few young men of special training have gone there from the North to enter the government service. A few intelligent soldiers, after the expiration of their terms of enlistment, have also been able to work into the service as clerks and in other capacities. A few more have been able to make a precarious living as mechanics, by doing odd jobs among the floating American population. But there is a natural tendency both among the Porto Ricans and the thoughtful resident Americans to give the preference to native mechanics. Gradually the American mechanics are pushed to the wall. The American clerks in public employment are being forced back to the mainland, a little too slowly in my judgment, but nevertheless surely. Porto Rico for the Porto Ricans! It is not a disloyal or unfriendly sentiment. On the contrary it is a proper and natural one. And those American members of the government that fully understand their responsibilities to the people of the island, fill vacancies in their departments with Porto Ricans whenever that can possibly be done. Outside the schools and the other branches of the public service the work to be done is largely in the open fields in agricultural pursuits. And in such a climate the American can not compete with the native at that kind of work.

THE PALACE OF PONCE DE LEON

The climate is indeed one of the most extraordinary characteristics of the island. Situated between the seventeenth and eighteenth parallels, it would be natural to suppose the temperature would render the island impossible as a place of permanent residence for Americans. But the fact is otherwise. Except for a few weeks during the year it is constantly swept by an ocean breeze commonly called

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RECEPTION ROOM IN THE GOVERNOR'S PALACE

the "trades," which makes the winter months so charming and delightful that Porto Rico is certain in the near future to become a favorite winter resort. Then, too, the months of June, July and August, as a rule, are altogether more tolerable there than they are in Philadelphia or New York. The intervening months of April, September and October are likely to try the patience of the resident from the North. The "trades" are then less active and sometimes altogether cease to blow. But even during those months there is never any extreme heat such as is quite common throughout even the northern states of the United States. The thermometer has never recorded a temperature higher than ninety-eight degrees Fahrenheit, a statement that can be made of few parts of the United States.

It is therefore not so much the heat as it is the lack of change in the temperature that troubles the northerner at this time. During the months of September and October, when for days together scarcely any variation of the thermometer can be noted throughout the twenty-four hours, the majority of Americans take their way to the North. But by the middle of November or the first of December they are ready to return. And it is rare indeed to find an American resident of the island who does not look forward with renewed pleasure to the thought of returning to Porto Rico for the winter. Jack Frost, so unwelcome a visitor to Florida, has never laid his destructive hand upon Porto Rico. In fact, the lowest temperature ever recorded in the island was fifty-eight degrees, and so unusual was it that Porto Ricans still speak of the day as we speak of the blizzard of 1885. Official observations made at San Juan during a period covering the last twenty years show that the mean monthly temperature has been seventy-nine degrees Fahrenheit.

As a rule both man and beast have to become acclimated. For two or three weeks American horses and other animals are kept out of the mid-day sun. But after this short period of preparation they seem to do as well as the native animals and to maintain their vigor and spirit when properly fed quite as well as in the United States. A riding horse in the palace stables that is said to have come from Spain many years ago, is still quite notable for its vigor and style.

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The general health of the American colony could scarcely be better. Shortly after his arrival a new resident from the North is quite apt to have a fever generally spoken of as the "calentura." Sometimes the attack is delayed and not infrequently he does not have it at all Although temporarily debilitating in its effects and extremely disagreeable while it continues, it is rarely fatal and seems to yield readily to treatment by the native physicians who are familiar with its symptoms and understand the manner in which it is to be dealt with. This fever being out of the way, an American resident of the island may expect to enjoy the most perfect health. There has not been a single case of yellow fever for many years; typhoid is quite unusual; and under the regulations enforced by the health authorities, smallpox, extremely rare among American residents, is rapidly disappearing from among the natives.

But the most remarkable feature of the climate of Porto Rico is its variety. The island is but thirty-five miles wide and less than one hundred miles in length. Yet within these narrow limits are to be found local climatic differences almost as pronounced and distinct in degree as the differences to be found between the extreme geographical boundaries of the United States. It is said that Columbus, when relating the story of his journeys to Isabella of Spain, responded to her inquiry about Porto Rico by crumpling a silk handkerchief in his hand and throwing it upon a table standing before Her Majesty. He intended doubtless in that way to give her a practical representation of the general shape of the island and of the mountains that form its backbone. Possibly this backbone of mountains is responsible for the remarkable variations in climatic conditions. However that may be it is not unusual to hear a Porto Rican say that the climate of such and such a place, sometimes less than twenty miles distant, is not good for his health. On several occasions the Insular Department of Justice received applications from judges for a transfer to different localities, based on the ground that their health was impaired by the climatic conditions of the district to which they had been assigned for duty. At first it was thought that requests of that nature indicated nothing more than that the official, for personal or social reasons, had found the place uncongenial. But later it became clear that they sometimes had a core serious meaning. These differences in climate are not always noticeable to the newcomer from the North, but sooner or later he also is able to detect them. Sooner or later he accepts the habits as well as the costumes of the natives as the most comfortable way of life. The American usually arrives in white duck and departs from the island in woolens. The native knows best.

THE STATUE OF PONCE DE LEON

One of the most marked illustrations of these climatic diversities is to be found in the differences in the rainfall at various points in the island. During one year while I was at San Juan, scarcely a day passed for a period of nine months without abundant rains. At Ponce, not more than forty-five miles away as the crow flies, not a single drop of rain fell during the same period. Although it rains much, an umbrella is less necessary and less frequently used, except as a sunshade, than in Chicago. When it rains it pours as it does nowhere else in the world. It does not come down in drops but in streams. Usually it is a quick shower and

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a neighboring doorway affords a sufficient shelter. In a few minutes the sun bursts forth and with the aid of the breezes the streets in a short time are perfectly dry again. These deluges of rain in ages past have left great scars on the face of the land and the ever-deepening cliffs and gorges are a record of their mighty work. They have carved out wide valleys and have filled them with rich soil washed down from the mountain sides that awaits only the touch of man to bring forth the fruits of the earth in abundance. They have pushed out from the foothills into the seas that surround the island great stretches of broad fields that are wonderfully productive and yearly yield rich harvests of sugar and other products to the fortunate planters that own them. The rivers and smaller streams and creeks furnish abundant waters for irrigation when there is lack of rain. The tropical sun does the rest. Man has to do but little more than to look on while nature does the work. The wag has said that all the peon of Porto Rico has to do is to stick his big toe into the ground and it will grow! Fence posts have indeed been known to sprout and grow into trees. And such is the vigor of life and such the richness of soil that almost anything put into the ground will take root.

Climate, soil and sun are daily toiling to bring prosperity to Porto Rico. Sugar, coffee, tobacco and fruits, all deemed more or less of a luxury in the North, are the common products of the soil of this wonderful island. The shrewd lover of the weed who knows just where to go to get the best, seems to find in the cigars of Porto Rico something that satisfies his reasonable demands. The native orange now grown wild is thought by many to be the sweetest orange that reaches our markets. When scientifically cultivated, as is now being done, it ought to be a source of large income to the planters. Cotton, which is not a new but rather a renewed industry in the island, is spreading over hundreds of acres like a great snowdrift. It is of fine quality and is expected to bring large rewards to those that grow it.

THE MUNICIPAL BUILDING OF SAN JUAN

There are many other products and fruits that in time will find a market on the mainland. Among them is the *aguacate*, curiously named "alligator pear" by Americans. Whether it is a vegetable or a fruit, whether it grows on a tree or on a vine, above ground or below it, the average American resident of the island probably does not know. Nor do I. He probably never sees it except when on the table, and then he never stops long enough to speculate on its origin or na-

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ture, but just "moves immediately upon its works." He deems the day as a day lost when an alligator pear is not set before him. It has many uses. It makes an excellent soup, but serves its best purpose as a salad. The people in the country sometimes use it as a substitute for butter. When dried it is ground into a sort of flour for cakes. It makes a fair soap! And many an army teamster on his way over the mountains with his heavy six-mule wagon has found that as an axle grease nothing but Frazer's can beat it!

But like cotton in the South, coffee is king in Porto Rico, although just now a very bedraggled monarch. And general widespread prosperity will never come to the island until the people of the mainland learn that there is no better coffee in the world than that grown among the foothills of this dreamland. The smart cafés of Paris, Vienna and Madrid even now use it to the exclusion of all other coffee. But the change of sovereignty almost destroyed the general market for it in Europe. The great hurricane of August, 1899, completed the disaster to the coffee lands. The planters have bravely endeavored to revive their plantations and they are making headway. But it is a hard fight. The inferior Brazilian coffee has the market. And unprincipled Americans have tried to make matters worse by shipping the cheap South American bean to Porto Rico and returning it to the United States as the product of the island. The result of all this is that, although the sugar and tobacco people are prospering, the pinch of hard times is touching the coffee people, from the planter that owns the soil to the laborers in the fields. Between the planter and his field hands are the dryers, the sorters and the packers that prepare the coffee for the market, the cart drivers that haul it down from the hills in the interior to the various ports of the island, the middlemen that handle the product, the coffee merchants that sell and export the crop, and the shopkeepers that supply the wants, necessities and luxuries of them all. They are all feeling the depression. And "General Prosperity," a very important personage to have in any community and whose permanent residence in the island was heralded as certain to follow the change

A HOLIDAY

of sovereignty, has not yet arrived. So far as the coffee people are concerned, he has only announced that he is coming!

There is no lack of cordiality and good fellowship between the Porto Ricans and the American residents in the island. But the sentiment "Porto Rico for the Porto Ricans" is growing. Let no one, however, mistake this cry for an expression of racial bias. It indicates nothing more than a new-born feeling of self-confidence of the right kind. It is, in fact, a very American sentiment. Democracy and self-reliance have crossed the intervening seas at one bound and have taken deep root in the Caribbean. Just now it may not always express itself in ways that we can understand. It may not always understand itself. But it is growing into the American mold, and when the young boys now entering the public schools shall have attained to their majority it will conform to type as we all know it. In the meantime there will come north resolutions for a territorial form of government and talk about statehood or independence and other expressions and resolutions equally unwise from our point of view. And unthoughtful newspapers in the United States will respond by calling the Porto Ricans "dagoes," and will hurl similar epithets back at

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FOURTH OF JULY IN SAN JUAN

them and talk of ingratitude and scent disloyalty. But there is no disloyalty in Porto Rico. "Territorial form of government" and "statehood or independence" are nothing but cries for citizenship in the great republic. And who will call that disloyalty? Who will call it ingratitude? What American can fail to take a just pride in the fact that our new kinsmen of Spanish origin desire a closer bond of union with us? Statehood, if it can ever be granted, is surely a long way off. A regularly organized territorial form of government would add nothing either to the dignity or to the advantage of the island. On the contrary, both would suffer much. The granting of citizenship in the full constitutional sense is a question of national policy involving more than Porto Rico and the Porto Ricans. But a declaration of some kind that would identify them as Americans and enable them to call themselves such, if it can be devised, ought not to be long delayed.

Moreover the people of Porto Rico are entitled in these first few years of their new history to generous aid from the national treasury. And the government has been generous to them. But just now in the absolute necessity of supplying additional schools and teachers they find a task greater than the insular budget can bear. And help is needed. They are not an ignorant people. On the contrary they are unusually quick and intelligent. They are gentle, polite and sensitive. They have a keen appreciation of music and art. Among them are many persons of wide culture and learning. There are judges, lawyers, physicians, journalists, writers, bankers, planters and merchants that would be a credit to any community. Most of these hold degrees from foreign universities, and it is not uncommon to meet Porto Ricans who, besides Spanish, speak English and French or German with fluency. There is, however, among the mass of the people an extraordinary and lamentable percentage of illiteracy due to no other cause apparently than the lack of the opportunity to attend schools or, to speak more accurately, to the lack of schools to attend. The income of the insular government for years to come will not be sufficient to attack and fully overcome this illiteracy. With liberal federal aid for a limited period, say for the next ten years, the public school system of the island could be so enlarged and perfected as to give the chance to every boy and girl to read and write not only the Spanish language but the English language as well. They are ambitious and studious, and they cry for more and better schools.

It is easy enough to let things take their course as they are now doing. And indeed much real and substantial progress is being made. But what the people of the United States hope ultimately to see in Porto Rico is, I take it, a government wisely and honestly administered for the Porto Ricans to the largest possible extent by the Porto Ricans. A permanently established government wisely and honestly administered for them by Americans only, would be of no special advantage to either people or involve any great lesson either for them or for us. What we wish in that island is not so much the success of the Americans who reside there or have interests there as the success and welfare of the Porto Ricans whose heritage it is. But the American form of government is founded upon an enlightened suffrage. It can not flourish long or reach its true development under any other conditions. And we can accomplish little of our ultimate high purposes in Porto Rico until there are schoolhouses enough to afford an opportunity for education to every boy and girl in the island. Give them more schoolhouses and some aid for the coffee industry and the Porto Ricans within the next generation will take their place in the American system as an intelligent, sturdy, self-reliant, prosperous and loyal American community.

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THE RUSSIAN OF TO-DAY

BY

G. R. BRANDT

IN searching for the typical Russian, one reluctantly turns from St. Petersburg with its gilded spires and domes — "the window" as some one has said, "from which Russia looks out upon civilized Europe" — and seeks the interior, there to meet the Russian agriculturist, of whose home life until recently comparatively little was known because of climatic conditions and insufficient means of travel. Popularly the peasant is the true type of Russian, the Russian of to-day.

In the earliest period of Russian history the rural population was composed of three distinct classes. At the bottom of the scale stood the slaves, who were very numerous. Their numbers were continually augmented by prisoners of war, by freemen who voluntarily sold themselves as slaves, by insolvent debtors and by certain classes of criminals. Next came the free agricultural laborers, who had no permanent residence, but wandered about the country and settled temporarily where they happened to find employment and satisfactory remuneration. In the third place, distinct from these two classes, and in some respects higher in the social and moral scale, were the peasants proper. These peasants, who may be roughly described as small farmers or cottiers, were distinguished from the free rural laborers in two respects: they were the possessors of land in usufruct, and were members of a rural commune. The communes were free corporations, somewhat primitive in their nature, which elected their officers and sent delegates to the prince's court.

If we turn now from these early times to the eighteenth century, we find that the position of the rural population entirely changed. The marks of distinction have become obliterated, and the three formerly separate and distinct categories have melted together into a common class called serfs, who are regarded as the property of the landed proprietors, and by them are regarded as chattels, and frequently sold, not in families, but one by one.

If we ask an educated Russian, who has given but little time to historical research, regarding the origin of serfage in Russia, he will probably reply: "In Russia slavery has never existed, and even serfage, in the West-European sense, has never been recognized by law. If those termed serfs were sometimes sold, the practice was simply an abuse not justified by legislation." This simple explanation, in which the writer thinks he detects a note of patriotic

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READY FOR THE HARVEST

pride, is almost universally accepted in Russia; but it contains, like most popular conceptions of the distant past, a curious mixture of fact and fiction. Although the peasants in ancient Russia were free to roam at will, there appeared at a very early period a decided tendency in the proprietors to prevent migration. This tendency will be easily understood if we remember that land without laborers to till it is useless, and that in Russia at that time the population was small in comparison with the amount of available land.

While there existed no acknowledged recognition of serfage on the part of the government, yet the serf for a second apparent reason was attached to the land that he might be available for military service, and even at the present time the Russian peasant who ventures to leave the village commune without permission from the authorities, which is usually granted in the form of a passport, is arrested and returned to his native village, when, almost invariably, he is fined and imprisoned. Until the recent imperial ukase abolishing the harshest remnants of barbaric punishments, he was for the more serious offenses castigated with cudgels and cat-o'-nine-tails. Only the most hardened prison official could endure the terrible sight of the torture of human beings under the measured blows of these instruments.

It is considered a fundamental principle of Russian political organization that all initiative measures in public affairs proceed from autocratic power. The widespread desire, therefore, for the emancipation of the serfs, which had been growing for a long period of time, did not find free expression so long as the Emperor remained silent regarding his intentions. The educated classes, who had observed for years the condition of the serfs, anxiously watched for some sign, and soon a sign was given them.

In March, 1856, his majesty, the Emperor, said "the existing manner of possessing serfs can not remain unchanged. It is better to abolish serfage from above, than to await the time when it will begin to abolish itself from below." This announcement, much to the disappointment of the Emperor, did not meet the ready approval of the noblesse. Perceiving that

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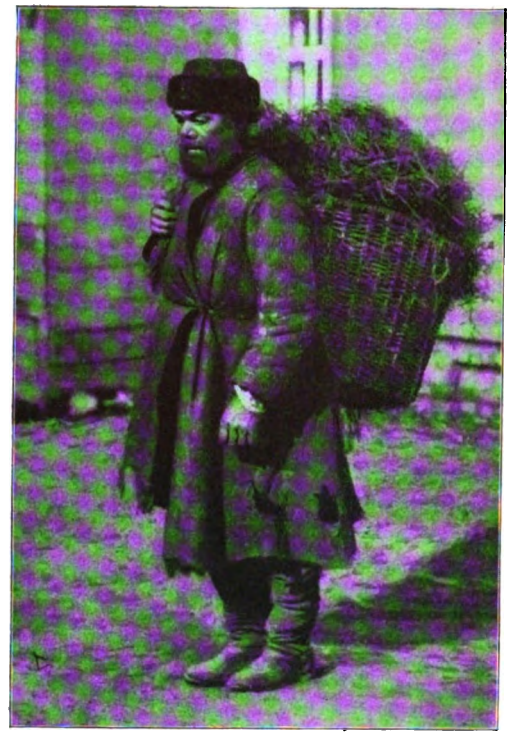
the fundamental principles on which the emancipation should be effected must be laid down by the government, the Emperor created a secret commission which devoted six months to studying the history of the question and then expressed the opinion desired and sanctioned by his majesty, that "the abolition of serfage must be effected, not suddenly, but gradually." The Minister of the Interior, in accordance with a secret order from the Emperor, immediately sent a circular to the governors and marshals of noblesse throughout Russia proper, informing them that the nobles of the Lithuanian Provinces "had recognized the necessity of liberating the serfs," and that "this noble intention" had afforded peculiar satisfaction to his Majesty, which would be much increased "in case the nobles of other provinces should express a similar desire." The announcement produced intense excitement throughout the country. No one could for a moment misunderstand the suggestion that the nobles of other provinces might possibly coincide. Such vague words, when spoken by an autocrat, have a very definite meaning, which prudent loyal subjects have no difficulty in understanding.

The die was cast, and the authorities looked anxiously to see the results. The press, which always voices the sentiments of his majesty, hailed the announcement with unbounded enthusiasm. When the commission had completed its task, its report was submitted to the committee of peasant affairs and the council of state, and to each of these bodies the Emperor announced that he could permit no fundamental changes. From them he exacted a complete and conscientious execution of his orders: "for you must remember," he added, "that in Russia laws are made by the autocratic power."

On February 19, 1861, the law was signed, and by that act 48,000,000 of serfs were liberated. New conditions and relations immediately sprang into existence. The emancipated people at once received the civil rights of the free rural classes, and the authority of the proprietor was replaced by the self-government of the communes, which retained the land they occupied and paid to the proprietors yearly dues in money or labor. The government by a system of credit assisted the



A RUSSIAN MUJIK

communes in redeeming these dues, or in other words, purchased the lands ceded to them in usufruct, while the domestic serfs were required to continue to serve their masters during a period of two years, after which they should be completely free.

The emancipation of this vast army of uneducated serfs was one thing; providing them with the means of a livelihood, quite another. It might be reasonably supposed that the peasants received with unbounded gratitude the information announcing their freedom, but not so. Here at last was the realization in part of their long cherished hopes. Liberty was granted them, and not only liberty, but more than half of the tillable land possessed by the proprietors. But the most remarkable feature of the transfer remains to be explained. Neither the peasant nor the commune owns the land in fee simple, but only the right to cultivate it, for which right they pay annual dues established by a commission; and neither peasant nor commune can relinquish or dispose of this right, the only means of escape being to emigrate or die. It is needless to say that

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A VILLAGE CHAPEL

both of these means are resorted to, either voluntarily or otherwise. In many instances the condition of the peasant is hopeless, and we are led to inquire, has the material and moral condition of the peasantry improved since the emancipation? Although nearly half a century has elapsed since Alexander II. issued his imperial decree, the agrarian relations and social conditions are still in a transitory, chaotic state, and it is impossible to predict with any degree of certainty what form they will ultimately assume.

PEASANTS AT THE WELL

The reader must recognize this fact: the Russian peasant differs materially in enterprise and intelligence from the average American citizen. He remains the same slave of surrounding conditions as his ancestors, poor, stupid, uneducated and entirely ignorant of the power he possesses. He does not think and act for himself, but remains listless and indifferent to his environment.

There is, perhaps, no more difficult task for the chronicler than that of describing clearly a chaotic period of transition when the former legal and social relations and customs of a people have been ruthlessly swept away by a revolutionary or legislative hurricane, and the present relations have not yet become clearly defined and established. The emancipation must be regarded as a gigantic experiment in social science, which is still incomplete, the necessary ingredients having been put together but we are yet unable to state the final outcome.

A careful investigation of the habits, home life, personal traits and characteristics of the average Russian will undoubtedly lead one to a correct conclusion as to why the Russian of to-day is not more advanced socially and politically. He possesses no pride in his personal appearance, is unclean, unkempt and untruthful, lives in dirt and squalor and very frequently may be found in actual want. He is slow of thought and equally slow of movement. To him time is *not* money. If it were, nearly all the subjects of the Czar would always have a large stock of ready money on hand. He is generally satisfied with existing conditions and consequently has no ambition to improve his surroundings. His staple articles of food are cabbage soup, salted fish and unleavened black bread made of an inferior quality of rye flour, salt, and, if he can obtain it, a quantity of tea, for which he has a fondness seldom equaled, drinking it without cream but using sugar. As a substitute for cream he uses vodka (whisky). In case he can not obtain the tea he has no conscientious scruples which prevent his imbibing the vodka as a substitute for tea.

A FAMILY GROUP

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If it be true, as some one has remarked, that the general intelligence and progressiveness of a people may be accurately determined by what they eat, drink and wear, then a careful examination of the peasant's larder and wardrobe would convince the reader of the partial cause, at least, of the conditions surrounding the Russian peasantry, which, to some extent, prevent them from rising above their present low estate.

The home life of the peasantry is that of simple tillers of the soil, inhabiting a country where the winter is long and severe and the summer correspondingly short. The busy season with the peasant begins late in April with the melting of the snow, and the rapidity of the transition from winter to spring astonishes the inhabitants of more temperate regions. On St. George's Day, April 23 (old style), the cattle are brought out from the stables for the first time since entering in October, and sprinkled with holy water by the priest, and the work of tilling the soil begins as soon as possible. "Sow in mud and you will be a prince," is an old proverb, which they always observe, and regard as traditional wisdom. The summer grains are sowed as soon as the 1st of June, and then the fallow fields are prepared for the winter grain, which will usually occupy the time to St. Peter's Day (June 29) when the haying generally begins. After this comes the harvest, by far the busiest season of the year. From the middle of July — especially from St. Elijah's Day (July 20), when the saint is usually heard rumbling along the heavens in his chariot of fire — until the first of September, the peasant may work continually, and scarcely find time to complete his work. About the last of September the labor of the field is completed, and on the first day of October the harvest festival begins, a joyous season, during which the parish festivities are commonly celebrated. To observe a festival in true, orthodox style, it is necessary to prepare beforehand a large quantity of *braga*, a kind of home-brewed beer, and to bake a plentiful supply of *piroghi* or pies. Oil for table use, and vodka, must also be procured, and in liberal quantities. At the

RUSSIAN FARM LABORERS

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THE PEASANT COSTUME

same time the large room of the *izba* is prepared, the floor, benches and tables are scrubbed.

The evening before the fete, while the *piroghi* are being baked, a lamp is kept burning before the icon in the corner of the room. The festivities are preceded by a somewhat lengthy service at the village church, and about noon the feast is served for the family and friends. On festive occasions the fare, which is usually of the simplest kind, is much improved, and several kinds of meats, and white bread appear. Vodka will be handed round until all become merry, while some are even boisterous. When the repast is ended, all rise at a given signal, and, turning toward the icon in the corner, bow and cross themselves repeatedly. The guests then say to their host, "*Spasibo za khleb za sol,*" that is to say, "Thanks for your hospitality," or more literally, "Thanks for bread and salt." After the repast the guests amuse themselves in various ways as their inclinations dictate, some chatting with their friends, while others fall asleep in some quiet nook. As evening approaches the older guests wend their way homeward, but the younger ones remain for supper, and as the evening wears away the effects of the vodka become more and more apparent, sounds of revelry are heard, and numerous guests appear on the road in various degrees of intoxication. As a whole, a village fête in Russia is one of the most saddening spectacles I have ever witnessed. The people do not know how to enjoy themselves in a harmless way, but resort to intoxication, and the arrival of a holiday — and the Russians have many of them — is the signal for a general debauch.

The Russian peasants are strict adherents of the Greek faith, and must fast during seven weeks of Lent, during two or three weeks in June, from the beginning of November till Christmas, and on all Wednesdays and Fridays during the remainder of the year. They can not obtain as much animal food as they require, and fruit of any kind is for them an unattainable luxury. Under these circumstances, to be required to abstain from eggs and milk in all their forms during several months of the year seems to the secular mind somewhat ascetic. If the Church would direct her solicitude to the peasants' drinking, and leave them to eat what they please, she might exercise a beneficial influence on their material and moral welfare.

From the season of festivities till the following spring the peasants have very little to do, and spend much of their time in idleness, unless they have learned some handicraft that can be practiced at home. The little girls spin flax in a primitive way without the aid of a "jenny," and the boys, who are much less industrious, make *lapti*, rude shoes of bark or skins, while the older people occupy their time in making wicker work, which they offer for sale upon the village streets.

An autocratic form of government transmits to its subjects a legacy of suspicion and mutual distrust, and this in connection with religious superstition hinders the advancement of the Russian. Not until he is permitted to read newspapers which are free from the press censorship, and to worship according to the dictates of his own conscience, unmolested by Church and State, and educate himself as he should, will he be able to rise above his present condition and be on an equal, politically and otherwise, with the people of other nations.

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ARE SCHOOL TEACHERS UNDERPAID?

BY

WILLIAM RAINEY HARPER

PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

IN Boston high-school teachers are paid from $1,620 to $3,060; grammar-school and elementary teachers $936 to $2,340. In Chicago salaries range from $850 to $2,000 in the high schools, from $500 to $825 in the graded schools. In St. Louis the limit is slightly lower—high-school salaries running from $682.50 to $2,060, while elementary-school teachers begin at $420, with a maximum of $892.50. San Francisco pays from $900 to $1,350 in its high schools, $450 to $747 in the grades. In Philadelphia the average salary paid to men in all the schools is $1,487.70, to women $569.70. The highest salary paid in Minneapolis, excluding principals, is $1,300 to a woman, $1,000 to a man—a reversal of the usual order. Figures for the entire State of Minnesota show that the average salary of men teachers in the graded schools is $513, in the district schools $349.70; while the average for women is $381 in the grades and only $279.72 for the country district schools. New York State shows a higher average because of its cities—$604.78 for the entire state, the average in cities being $879.27 and in towns as low as $322.49. The highest average salary paid to men teachers in Pennsylvania is $719.80 in Delaware County. The average in Fulton County is the lowest, $226.71. Delaware County has also the highest average for women, $416.88, while Pike County has a minimum of $221.67.

Can any intelligent person read these figures and be willing to say that they represent a satisfactory situation? It seems to me to be a perfectly clear proposition based on these figures and on the facts as they are known to exist, that the salaries paid teachers of the elementary and secondary grades in our public schools are grossly insufficient and inadequate. It is possibly unnecessary to consider this question, and yet, if actual injustice is being done a great constituency in the public service, surely remonstrance and complaint are proper. I desire in this brief statement to present five arguments in support of my protest against the injustice done this great body of faithful public servants. Each argument thus presented is in itself sufficient, but when the five are taken together the case against the present policy is overwhelming in its strength.

1. The salaries paid are insufficient in view of the grade of talent demanded for the work of instruction. There was once a time when a young man or woman who could do nothing else turned his thought toward teaching; but in the better sections of the country, and especially in the cities, that time is rapidly passing. It is universally recognized that strong qualities are called for in the teacher, and that a successful teacher is one who can succeed likewise in a multitude of ways outside of the profession of teaching. One need only examine the long list of men and women who have given up their work as teachers to enter upon some form of business and have conducted the new work most successfully to understand the truth of this statement. Just as in the departments of higher education, intellectual ability of the highest order is called for, and nothing else than this will satisfy the case, so in lower education. The demands of the work can be met only by those whom nature has endowed with a very high order of talent. The teacher

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to whom is intrusted the fostering care of our children should surely be one whose ability we respect. How is it possible to satisfy the conscience if a policy other than this prevails? Is there anything more precious than the child, whether regarded from the point of view of the family or the state? Is not his training a thing of preëminent importance? And yet we are willing to pay to his teacher a salary far less than is paid in many cases to the keeper of our horses, or to the keeper of our cattle. Who can not see the utter absurdity of this? The teacher, everything being considered, should be, and in many cases is, the equal of the man or woman who enters into any other professional life. Shall we stultify ourselves by continuing to pay the teacher at a rate which places on him or her the brand of intellectual weakness for having accepted a position which promises its occupant so little profit or advantage?

2. The salaries paid are insufficient in view of the large amount of technical preparation required for the performance of the duties of the office. Here again times have changed wonderfully. The teacher in the grades must be an expert in psychology and must have a reasonable acquaintance with all of the departments of knowledge which contribute toward the life and thought of the child. The field is illimitable. Years of preparation are required; first in the high school and later in the college or professional school. Effort of the most serious character is demanded, and many who undertake this arduous preparation find themselves unequal to the task and drop it. A small proportion pursue the work to the end. The time has come when preparation for teaching, even in the grades, requires a training and a proficiency equal to that demanded by any other profession. These requirements have gradually been increased until to-day, in many quarters, only those possessed of a vigorous physical constitution, a strong, untiring purpose, and in addition a considerable sum of money, are able to secure the preparation called for. Is it justice to those who have pursued this laborious course of preparation that in the end they should find themselves limited to a salary so small as to seem pitiful in view of the hardship undergone and the expense which has been incurred?

3. The salaries paid are insufficient in view of the character of the work required of the teacher. Those who have never taught have but slight conception of the actual demand made upon the nervous energy of the teacher in the school. It is possible that in some cases parents secure some idea of the strain under which the teacher works, but it will be remembered that the family rarely exceeds three, or four, or five children, while the teacher is compelled to do service for thirty or fifty or more. The constant alertness which is necessary and the unbroken and uninterrupted strain, which, for many, proves to be a fatal thing, draw upon the constitution to such an extent that weariness of mind and body comes to be so great that only absolute rest offers relief. The four or five or six hours in the schoolroom require a strength of body and a strength of mind as great as is required in the practice of any profession. And when it is remembered that this same routine of life comes day after day, week after week, and month after month, one can not fail to realize the painfulness of it all, the courage which alone makes it possible, and the utter self-sacrifice which is involved; for in no other work can it be so truly said that the toiler gives forth of his own strength to the one for whom he toils. The end of it all, unless special effort is made to avoid this end, is exhaustion, mental and nervous; and the number of physical wrecks furnished by the profession of teacher is certainly larger in proportion than that in any other calling of life. Is such work unworthy of a respectable salary? Is there anywhere work of a more serious or more vital character than this? Is work done anywhere else that counts for more in the life of the family or the nation? Then why treat it in this ignoble fashion?

4. The salaries paid are insufficient in view of the necessary professional expense connected with a teacher's life. The teacher who is to maintain his or her position must read daily. This requires the purchase of many books. The library, indeed, is an essential feature in the teacher's life. The growing teacher will

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not fail to spend at least ten to twenty per cent of the salary for new books from year to year. In these days important results are accomplished in teachers' conventions and conferences. To attend these money is required. There is a conference of the teachers of a particular subject which meets perhaps three or four times a year. There is another conference of the teachers of the county, or of a certain portion of the city. There is still another conference of the teachers in the city, and there is the convention of the teachers in all of the states. It is really essential to the life and progress of the teacher that these meetings shall be attended, for it is here that one comes in contact with those who are interested in the same subjects, and from such contact the benefits are most numerous and valuable. But, after all, the greatest necessity of the teacher, regarded wrongly by many as a luxury, is travel. Nothing is so elevating or so encouraging or so inspiring as travel. Home travel and foreign travel together constitute a feature in self-education which has never been truly estimated. But how can these things be done without money? It is impossible. How different will be the life of a teacher if opportunities of this kind are afforded, and how different will be the instruction given the pupils if the teacher has thus come into contact with the lives of others! At least twenty per cent of the teacher's salary can be spent to advantage in this kind of effort to renew the mind and the body. Can it be done on the present basis of salaries? One need only study the annual budget of the average teacher to see how hopeless the case is.

5. The salaries paid are insufficient in view of the provision which should be made beforehand for old age. While the professor in the university may well continue his work in ordinary cases until he is sixty-five or seventy years old, the average teacher in the high school or in the grades ought to give up his work much earlier. This is true partly because the work has been so different from that carried on by the professor; partly also because the age of the students is likewise different. It is a serious question whether a woman over fifty or fifty-five years of age can teach in the grades. Such a woman can, of course, superintend or supervise instruction, but in only a few cases will a teacher of this age find herself sufficiently fresh and flexible to meet the demands of younger children. But what is there left for a teacher who is compelled to give up her work at the age of fifty or fifty-five? No new occupation can be taken up. The work of life is practically finished and yet the individual must go on living possibly many years. Provision beforehand must, therefore, be made, if not in the form of pension, in any case in the form of savings set aside from year to year for this much-dreaded period. It is here that a serious problem presents itself. With the many demands made upon the teacher, with the necessity for taking advantage of the opportunities which might increase efficiency, with the calls for help that come perhaps more frequently to the teacher than to any other person, with the necessity in many cases of supporting parents, or families, or friends—for all these the meager salary has been utterly inadequate and nothing remains with which to make the years of old age even comfortable.

The picture is a dark one. Many, many tragedies lurk in the background. It is a picture, the sight of which ought to inspire every parent to undertake a contest with the authorities for better salaries; because better salaries mean better talent, better preparation, a higher character of work, the taking advantage of larger opportunities, and, in addition, the privilege to which every man or woman who has given up life for the sake of others is entitled—the privilege of a quiet and comfortable old age.

Why does this injustice continue? Because the eyes of parents, as well as of those in authority, are blind. How can they be opened? Let us ask ourselves this question, and let us find an answer for it.

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MEN AND WOMEN OF THE MONTH

George E. Hale

A Pioneer in the New Astronomy

PUBLIC attention is not often called to the work of a scientist who keeps aloof from popular lectures and treatises. Especially is this true of an astronomer. Most people imagine that his work consists in looking at the stars. Possibly this was nearly the case a few years since, but of late an entirely new branch of the science has been developed which promises to revolutionize the future. It is the camera and not the human eye that just now is making the most important discoveries in the heavens. And this means a revolution in astronomical method, due in no small degree to the spectroheliograph, an instrument for photographing the sun. Its inventor is George E. Hale, professor of astrophysics and director of the Yerkes Observatory of the University of Chicago. Professor Hale would be the last one to claim to be a Columbus of science, for what he really did was to combine the work of physicists and astronomers. At the time of this invention he had barely reached his majority. He is still a young man for the honors which have come to him. The Janssen medal of the Paris Academy of Sciences was voted him when he was but twenty-six years of age. Since then he has been awarded the Rumford medal and the Draper medal given by the National Academy of Sciences. Within the past month he has been given a two years' leave of absence from the university to engage in special investigation at the observatory to be established under the auspices of the university and the Carnegie fund in California.

Representative Robert Roberts Hitt

Possible Republican Nominee for Vice-President

AFTER much Republican maneuvering to find a willing and suitable candidate for Vice-President, the choice bids fair to fall on Representative Robert Roberts Hitt, of Illinois. His immense experience as a statesman would give him a strong influence in the administration. The prominent part he has played in connection with the foreign policies of the United States would make him particularly valuable. Mr. Hitt is highly popular in Illinois, and is likely to have a specially strong appeal for the older Republicans on account of his former intimate association with President Lincoln, when reporting the famous Lincoln-Douglas debates. Mr. Hitt was born seventy years ago at Urbana, Ohio; but ever since he was three years old his home has been in Ogle County, Illinois. He was educated at Rock River Seminary and De Pauw University. In 1874-81 he made an honorable record as a conservative diplomat, being first United States secretary of legation and chargé d'affaires *ad interim* at Paris. For a short time, in 1881, he was Assistant Secretary of State, but he has been a member of Congress ever since that year. In the summer of 1898 he was appointed by President McKinley a member of the commission to establish the government of Hawaii on the annexation of the islands to the United States. In the fifty-sixth and fifty-eighth Congresses he was chairman of the committee on foreign affairs.

M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu

French Publicist Who Has Been Lecturing in America

M. HENRY JEAN BAPTISTE ANATOLE LEROY-BEAULIEU, who has been lecturing for several weeks in the United States under the auspices of the Alliance Française, is one of the foremost strivers for liberalism in France. For over thirty years he has fought strenuously against every manifestation of governmental, religious and social tyranny. Himself a publicist, historian and sociologist of rare merit, he is the brother of the famous economist, Pierre Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, editor of *l'Economiste Française*. M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, born at Lisieux, Normandy, in 1842, first came into public notice as an art critic. In 1866 he produced an ineffective play,

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GEORGE E. HALE
Director of the Yerkes Observatory

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MRS. SARAH PLATT DECKER

"A Troupe of Comedians," and an essay on "The Restoration of Our Historic Monuments Before Art and Before the Budget." In the latter work he treated particularly the restoration of the cathedral of Evreux. His more enduring work began when, in 1872, he went to Russia and stayed some years studying the organization and customs of that country. The facts and the strong and original impressions he obtained furnished the material for his book, "The Empire of the Czars and Russia" (1889), which remains one of the best works produced in France on this subject. Previously, M. Leroy-Beaulieu had published in *La Revue des Deux Mondes* a series of articles which appeared in book form in 1879 under the title "An Emperor, a King, a Pope and a Restoration," being a historical criticism of the politics of the Second Empire. On his return from Russia in 1881, he became professor of contemporary history and Oriental affairs at l'Ecole Libre des Sciences Politiques, and six years later was elected a member of l'Academie des Sciences Morales et Politiques. Noteworthy among his other writings are "The Liberal Catholics," "The Church and Liberalism" (1885), "France, Russia and Europe" (1888), "The Revolution and Liberalism" (1890), "Israel Among the Nations" (1894), and "The Papacy, Socialism and Democracy."

Mrs. Sarah Platt Decker

The New President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs

THE General Federation of Women's Clubs, at its recent meeting in St. Louis, did a graceful thing in electing Mrs. Sarah Platt Decker, of Denver, as its president. There was poetic justice in it as well. Mrs. Decker has twice, if not three times, withdrawn her name from a hopeful canvass in recognition of another's rights to the honor. As a citizen of Denver the new president is a woman suffragist, at least in the Colorado sense. The only hesitation the Federation experienced regarding her candidacy was at this point. Mrs. Decker's well-recognized tact and sanity, however, were more than enough to offset any fear of entangling alliances between the General Federation and the suffrage movement, and her election was unanimous.

Colonel William C. Gorgas

Yellow Fever Expert of the Canal Zone

WILLIAM C. GORGAS, A.B., M.D., Colonel and Assistant Surgeon-General, United States Army, who was recently appointed chief sanitary officer of the Panama Canal zone, enjoys the distinction of being the only man to be promoted from the rank of major to that of colonel in the medical department of the American army. He owes this distinction and that of his recent appointment to Panama to the marvelous work he did in Havana to prevent the occurrence of yellow fever. The committee in charge of this task consisted of Dr. Gorgas, who then held the ranks of major and surgeon, and the late Major Walter Reed and Doctors Carroll and Agramonte, all of the army medical department. This committee made researches as to the causes of yellow fever, and definitely demonstrated that this ancient scourge of Cuba was due to the mosquito known as the *Stegomyia Fasciata*. By cleansing the harbor and marshes and doing away with the larvæ of this mosquito through the use of coal oil, yellow fever was banished from Cuba

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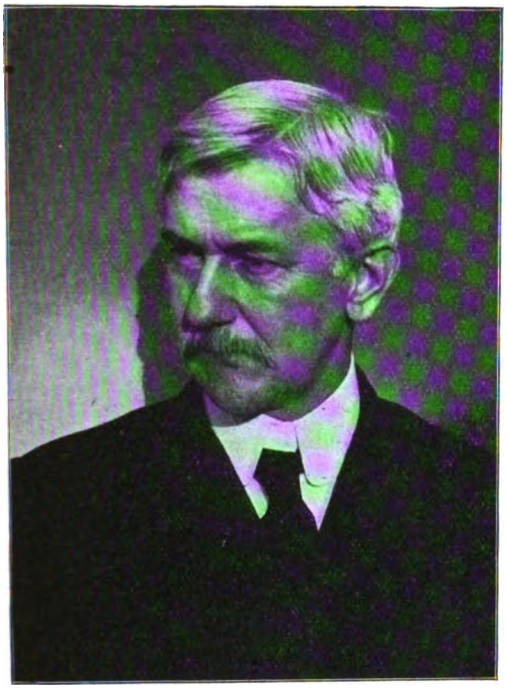

WILLIAM C. GORGAS

JAMES ADDISON HENRY

for the first time since the Spanish occupation of the island.

Colonel Gorgas was born in Alabama, October 3, 1854, and received a collegiate education in the University of the South, Sewanee, Tennessee, whence he graduated with the degree of A.B. with the class of 1875. Four years later he graduated as M.D. and interne from the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, New York. The following year he became assistant surgeon in the United States army. He was promoted to his present rank by special act of Congress, March 9, 1903, and the same year received the degree of Doctor of Science from the University of Pennsylvania, besides being made a fellow of the Philadelphia College of Physicians. Medical authorities believe that he has criginated a system whereby even the tropics may be made inhabitable for northern peoples.

Rev. James Addison Henry

Moderator of the Presbyterian General Assembly

REV. JAMES ADDISON HENRY, who was recently elected moderator of the One Hundred and Sixteenth Presbyterian General Assembly, has many traits that remind one strongly of the good parson in Goldsmith's "Deserted Village," who "ne'er had changed, or wished to change his place." In Dr. Henry's felicitous introductory address to the Assembly, he mentioned the fact that his father, his brother-in-law and himself together, "served two churches 118 years." He was born (1836) in Cranbury, New Jersey, where his father and brother-in-law filled the Presbyterian pastorate each for thirty-seven years. He was educated at Princeton (then called the College of New Jersey), and immediately on his graduation from the Princeton Theological Seminary was called to be pastor of the Princeton church in West Philadelphia. There he is still pastor after forty-four years of distinguished service. Dr. Henry has visited Europe twelve times and has represented the Presbyterian Church in several Pan-Presbyterian councils. He is a trustee of Princeton University, a director of the Princeton Theological Seminary and president of the Pennsylvania Industrial Home for Blind Women, besides being director and trustee of many other benevolent institutions. His sympathies are broad and progressive and he is said to care little for theological technicalities.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

The Electric Railway Test Commission

VISITORS to the Universal Exposition at St. Louis during the coming summer will notice here and there about the Palaces of Electricity and Transportation certain groups of earnest young men, apparently intent upon learning all that they can about the operating of the electric railway machinery which they are testing. These men are recent graduates from some of the largest technical colleges, and they have been engaged to make, under experienced supervision, a number of scientific investigations upon the laws of electric train movement.

The rapid advance in the application of electric motors, as the source of power upon railway cars, has produced a demand for exact information regarding the power requirements of such service. The passenger who sits in his comfortable seat and is whisked rapidly to his destination little realizes what an amount of engineering skill has been brought into activity for his convenience and safety. As a matter of fact a great deal of study and experimenting lie back of the successful transportation of passengers with economy and comfort. But the passenger demands greater speed and greater ease, and the efficiency of operation must be constantly increased in order that expenses may be cut down and greater profits made. Hence the time and energy which are being put into studies of the laws of train operation.

The Universal Exposition offers exceptional opportunities for the line of work about to be undertaken. The authorities have placed at the disposal of the experimenters every desired facility. They have built for the purpose several thousand feet of special track near the Transportation Building and they are furnishing the necessary accommodations for preparing instruments and working out results. The management greatly desires to make this great exposition a source of education to the millions of visitors by showing in actual operation the various industrial enterprises which have made our nation so successful. They wish to use the opportunity also to supply scientific and other information made possible by the bringing together of such a vast collection of material.

The electric railway tests are being conducted under the management of a special committee of prominent railway engineers, who are giving freely of their time and means to promote the enterprise. They are being assisted financially by contributions from the large and progressive electric railway companies of the country. The Electric Railway Test Commission, as this body is named, consists of the following: Mr. J. G. White, New York, chairman; Mr. H. H. Vreeland, New York; Mr. W. J. Wilgus, New York; Mr. J. H. McGraw, New York, and Mr. G. F. McCulloch, Indianapolis. The commission, early in the year, appointed a number of engineering committees of gentlemen connected with the manufacture and operation of electric railways to prepare recommendations as to the tests which should be made. Upon the basis of these reports the details have been arranged within the past few days. The actual planning and conduct of the tests are in direct charge of an executive committee of which the chairman is Professor W. E. Goldsborough, chief of the Department of Electricity, Universal Exposition. Professor H. H. Norris, of Sibley College, Cornell University, is superintendent of electric railway tests, and associated with him as assistant superintendents are Professors B. V. Swenson, of the University of Wisconsin, and H. T. Plumb, of Purdue University. About thirty-five young men from these institutions will perform the actual observations and these are already undergoing a special preparation for their important work. In order that the conduct of tests may be

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THE HICKS SYSTEM OF TREE-MOVING

as efficient as possible, each of the three large companies which manufacture electric railway machinery has appointed a representative to act upon an advisory committee. These are as follows: General Electric Company, Schenectady, New York, Mr. A. H. Armstrong; Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Company, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, Mr. Clarence Renshaw, and the new combination of the Allis-Chalmers Company and the Bullock Electric Company, Chicago, Illinois, and Cincinnati, Ohio, Mr. W. S. Arnold.

Already the heartiest interest and cooperation in the work are being manifested by manufacturers, operators and scientists, and it is the expectation that the results of the work will be of immediate benefit in solving the complicated problems connected with train movement.

HENRY H. NORRIS.

Moving Big Trees

THESE are the days when the man who buys a country seat or home in the suburbs does not have to wait ten or fifteen years to shade or beautify his grounds with trees. He can have the ordinary landscape changed from a bare field to a beautiful grove or dotted here and there with fine specimens of the forest. Yet the transformation can be effected in a few days. The secret of it is that trees can be taken up, moved from place to place and again set out almost as easily as a plant or shrub, though they may be fifteen or twenty years old, rising to a height of forty or fifty feet from the ground.

A Long Island man is probably the pioneer in the transplanting of big trees in this country. He invented what is known as a tree mover. In operating with this apparatus, the tree is dug by starting a circular trench with a diameter of thirty or forty feet. An undercut is made beneath the roots and the soil picked out and caved down with a spading fork or picking rod, the points of which are rounded to avoid cutting off the roots. The loose dirt is shoveled out of the bottom of the trench and the roots are uncovered, tied in bundles with lath yarn and bent up, out of the way of the diggers. If the roots are to be out of the ground even for one day in dry weather, the bundles are wrapped in clay mud, damp moss and straw or burlap. When the digging has progressed within from four to eight feet of the center, the tree is slightly tipped over to loosen the central ball, which cleaves from the subsoil near the extremities of the downward roots. A ball of earth is left in the center from five to twelve feet in diameter, or

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as heavy as can be drawn by four to eight horses. In loading for removal, the cradle of the mover, which is pivoted above or back of the axle, is swung over to the tree, the trunk first being wrapped with cushions and slats. It is thus clamped to the cradle by chains and screws without injuring the bark. By means of a screw nine feet long, operated by a ratchet lever or hand-brake wheel, the cradle lifts the tree from the hole and swings it over in a horizontal position. Pulling in the same direction by tackle fastened in the top of the tree aids the work of the screw. After the tree is loaded, the roots on the other side of the axle are tied up to the perches.

The new resting place is carefully prepared, the earth being removed sufficiently to place not only the main but the smaller roots at a sufficient depth for them to secure nourishment. All the stone and sand are taken out and a lining of rich earth placed in the hole. When the tree arrives, the truck which supported it is pulled over the center of the excavation and the trunk released and gradually lowered into the earth. The roots and lower portion of the trunk are then thoroughly covered with a sort of compost which includes fertilizer and natural soil. This is "wet down" until it is in the shape of mud. While the shovelers are covering the lower part of the tree, posts are driven about it to which are fastened lengths of wire which are wound around the middle and upper portions of the trunk in order to hold it in a straight line until it has a firm grip in the earth.

AN ITALIAN GARDEN ON LONG ISLAND
All the trees were transplanted to make this garden

This system is known as the Hicks system. In the West another machine has been devised. It is a huge pot made of curved pieces of steel which are called shovels. When a tree is to be removed, the earth around it is softened with water. Then the shovels are driven into the ground about the roots with wooden mallets until they form a casing which nearly encloses the roots. The upper portion of each shovel is fitted with iron

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clamps by which all are fastened together. Then the tree is fastened by chains to a stout framework supported on trucks. These chains are connected with screws, and two men, by turning the levers of the screws, can readily lift the tree so that it can be swung beneath the truck frame and there secured. In this way it is transferred, and by loosening the screws it is lowered into the new excavation made for it. The earth is filled in and pounded down firmly around the steel pot, then the shovels are loosened by means of the clamps and withdrawn, leaving the tree firmly set in the earth which originally enclosed its principal roots.

D. A. WILLEY.

MODERN LANDSCAPE GARDENING
Trees and shrubbery of large size are now transplanted with ease by improved methods

To Increase Iowa's Corn Crop

PROFESSOR P. G. HOLDEN, of the chair of agronomy of the Iowa State Agricultural College, began, on April 15, a four weeks' tour of Iowa on special trains furnished him by the railroads traversing the state, lecturing to Iowa farmers on the scientific methods of selecting and planting seed corn. After his first trip Professor Holden announced that he confidently believed his instructions to the hundreds of farmers who gathered at every station to hear him would result in an increase of from five to ten bushels per acre in the corn yield of this year, as compared with last year. Other railroads at once made arrangements for similar excursions on their lines. The first three days' journey covered fifteen of the ninety-nine counties in Iowa and carried the corn-planting instruction, based on scientific experiments made at the Iowa Agricultural College Experiment Station, to sixty towns and four thousand corn growers, whose acres devoted to corn growing aggregate fully a million and a half. Professor Holden was accompanied on his tour by J. R. Sage, director of the Iowa Crop Bureau, and leading grain buyers and shippers of the state who contracted for the increased yield confidently expected as a result of

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the lectures. Twenty-minute stops were made at every station on the route and Professor Holden lectured for fifteen minutes, in an audience car attached to his special train, exhibiting samples of seed corn to show the kind to use and to avoid. After the lecture a question parliament was conducted and practical queries from the farmers answered scientifically. When the meeting was over the train pulled out for the next station, at-

PROFESSOR P. G. HOLDEN

tempting to travel on schedule time so as to disappoint none of the waiting auditors.

In 1903 the aggregate yield of Iowa corn fields was two hundred and thirty-one million bushels, with an aggregate valuation of $83,000,000. The number of acres planted and producing corn in Iowa last year was 7,398,320. The average yield per acre was thirty-one bushels, ranging from forty-two bushels in Dubuque and Marshall Counties to twenty bushels in Winnebago and Green Counties. Professor Holden firmly believes that the section of the state traversed by him will yield an average increase of five bushels per acre over last year's crop, as a result of careful selection of seed corn and scientific planting. By the time his tours are completed he will have covered from one-half to two-thirds of the entire state, while the printed copies of his lectures will have reached the entire state. An increase of one bushel to the acre, on the basis of the acres planted last year, would mean an aggregate increase of 7,398,320 bushels, which at last December's prices would be an aggregate financial increase over the 1903 valuation of $2,663,395.20. F. G. MOOREHEAD.

How Women Are Aiding Civil Service Reform

FIVE hundred schools in the United States are studying the merit system and using the literature prepared by the Woman's Auxiliary of the Massachusetts Civil Service Reform Association. Twenty-three state federations either have committees devoted to civil service reform or subcommittees to the ones on education, civics, legislative and philanthropic, thereby showing, as one keen observer put it, "a delightful understanding of the meaning of the reform." It has only been a few years since the women took up this particular propaganda, but they already bid fair to outrival the men in the rigor and persistency of their advocacy.

The National Federation of Women's Clubs has taken up the subject (having given it consideration at the biennial in May) as have many of the state federations. In the majority of these bodies the movement has not progressed much beyond the stage of discussion, but the New York Women's Auxiliary of the National Civil Service Reform League has done considerable practical work. A similar auxiliary in Boston has made satisfactory arrangements with the various clubs of women throughout Massachusetts by which they can join *en bloc*. A lecturer has been secured, and where the clubs are limited in means, the expenses of the lecturer are borne by the auxiliary. The Daughters of the American Revolution in Massachusetts are also becoming interested and some have already joined the auxiliary. Miss Perkins, of Concord, who has been the active spirit in the movement, not only in Massachusetts but throughout the country, has been instrumental in having the subject of civil

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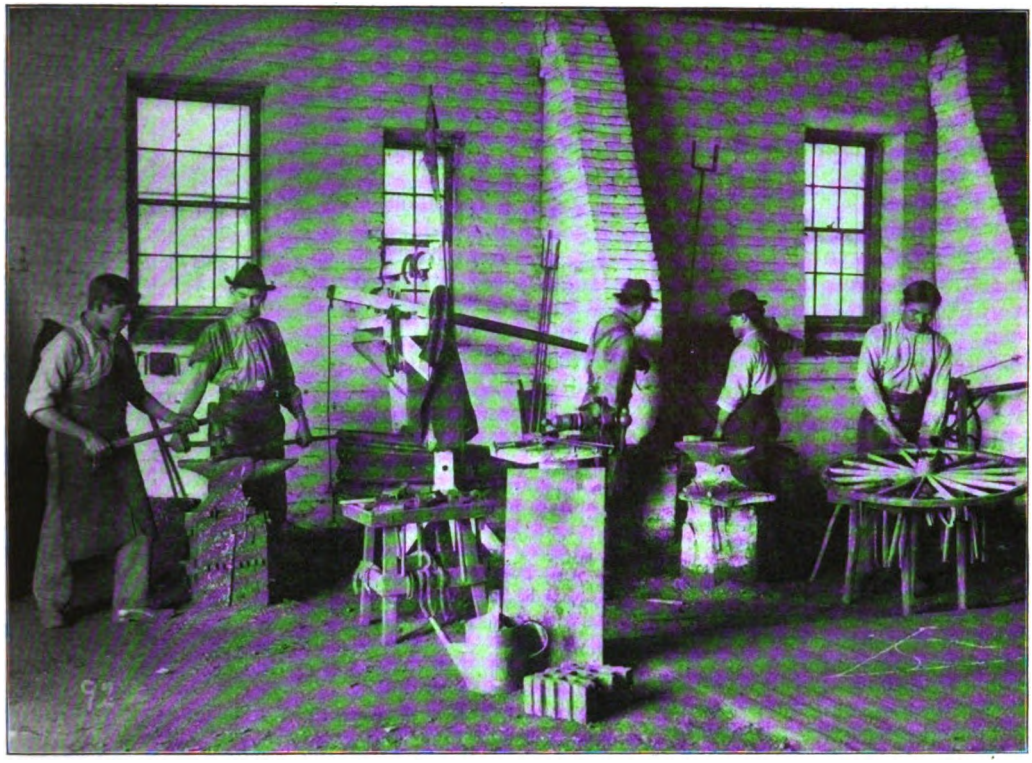

INDIAN BOYS LEARNING BLACKSMITHING

service reform made a branch of study in the high schools. It is an optional branch there still, but in New York the State Regents' examination makes it obligatory. An appeal has been made to the president of each state federation to give to the subject some attention, especially along the lines of securing instruction in the high schools. We believe that the women can do much in the way of creating a sound public sentiment in favor of the merit system and that more can be gained in the direction of Miss Perkins' efforts to this end than through an immediate insistence on the granting of the suffrage to women.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF.

Training Indians for Self-Support

THE one federal appointment given to a woman by the present administration is that of Superintendent of Indian Schools for the United States, an office of great opportunity and scope. For several years Miss Estelle Reel, of Wyoming, has administered it in such manner that a marked improvement is noticeable in the education of the Indian all over the country. Each year Miss Reel travels from coast to coast to study the various needs of the reservation schools and to compare their results with other schools in more settled districts. During her first year in office she traveled for seven months, becoming acquainted with the various tribes and the methods used in civilizing them.

Miss Reel has made industrial training the most important feature of the work for educating the Indian youth. In addition to a thorough training in the fundamental English branches, farming and blacksmithing are taught in a rudimentary way, for these are things which the Indian is liable to need on reservations situated miles from town. The girls are taught sewing, cooking and housework. The teaching of cooking has not yet reached a satisfactory degree of excellence, but better efforts are being put forth each year in this important branch of a girl's education. Many boys become shoemakers, tailors and carpenters and once in a while an author or artist is de-

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veloped. As a result of these efforts twenty-five per cent more Indians are self-supporting now than ten years ago; comparatively few are receiving rations, and these are the aged, sick and infirm. Educating the red man in the care of his body and in the prevention of disease occupies a prominent place in the training, as well as the inculcating of the sense of property ownership, a difficult thing to do, as from time immemorable the Indians have held things in common.

Gradually under this training the Indians are cultivating better gardens and building houses. Wigwams and teepees are giving place to neat one and two room homes. In many places, especially in Oregon, the Indian now has a comfortable home and a few head of cattle. The Indian father, through trips to the nearest town, gradually becomes acquainted with the white man's civilization, but the women are shy, nervous and non-progressive, and, as a rule, oppose the education of the children much more vigorously than does the man. Field matrons try to solve this hard problem by visiting every Indian family and trying to win by kindness the heart of the poor, ignorant Indian woman.

Another method which has been introduced with the idea of interesting young and old, is the annual exhibit given by the Indians attending the government schools throughout the country. One or more of these are held annually in some large city. The exhibit includes lacework, embroidery, fine needlework, basketry, shoes, tools and various other things useful and ornamental which have been made by Indian children less than sixteen years of age. At a recent exhibit, Phoenix, Arizona, took the palm for needlework and the Oneida Indian school of Wisconsin furnished the best beadwork, purses, belts and chains being made of beads woven in original Indian patterns, many of which are becoming extinct.

It is the ardent desire of the superintendent that these Indian handicrafts may be encouraged, for thereby the Indians may be helped to gain a livelihood. As an aid in this undertaking Congress appropriated $5,000 to be used in planting willows for use in the making of baskets. The demand for Indian handicrafts is so great that orders of a thousand dollars or more are sometimes filled by the large stores in New York. The time for buying these goods for a mere song is rapidly passing away, for the Indians have learned their true value, just as they have learned to substitute the dyes of the white man in preference to their native roots and herbs. Miss Reel has issued a circular to agents and superintendents, asking for the names of basketmakers and specimens of their work, that basketmakers may be obtained who will teach the children of the present generation the

THE SLOYD ROOM AT THE INDIAN SCHOOL, PHOENIX, ARIZONA

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A SEWING CLASS OF INDIAN GIRLS

Indian handicrafts and designs which symbolize the history and tradition of their tribes. In this way it is hoped the art will not die out and that the results may be distinctively Indian. Especial stress is laid on the use of vegetable dyes, caution being taken against the aniline decoctions which fade and detract from the value of baskets and blankets.

A model Indian school is being carried on at St. Louis during the progress of the exposition. There is an Indian band composed of students from various schools. Workshops and booths show native arts and industries, including basketmaking, blanketweaving, silversmithing, beadwork, carving and manufacturing articles from leather, stone, birchbark and clay. The design is to show people just what the government is doing for the Indian and to illustrate not only its policy but its methods. KATHERINE LOUISE SMITH.

Testing Athletes' Blood

A SERIES of experiments, conducted under the supervision of Dr. Philip B. Hawk of the University of Pennsylvania, has tended to show that of all the sports of track, field and tank, swimming is of the most benefit to the modern athlete. Dr. Hawk, who is a demonstrator of physiological chemistry at the university, decided some time ago to make microscopical examinations of the blood of the athletes at the college, both before and after the practice of the sport in which they excelled. He visited the dressing-rooms at the athletic field and immediately before each athlete left for his exercise on the track drew blood from him by means of the regularly prepared sterile needle. Then, when the athlete returned from the dressing-room after running, jumping or pole vaulting, the needle was again brought into play and a second sample of blood drawn for analysis.

The results have been carefully compiled and will be embodied shortly in a report to the athletic departments of the various colleges. When asked which sport showed the most marked percentage of gain for the participants, so far as the richness and redness of the blood is concerned, Dr. Hawk answered: "Water polo." "From the analysis, I should recommend swimming as the ideal sport," said the demonstrator. "This form of muscular exercise has been found to produce an average increase of 21 per cent

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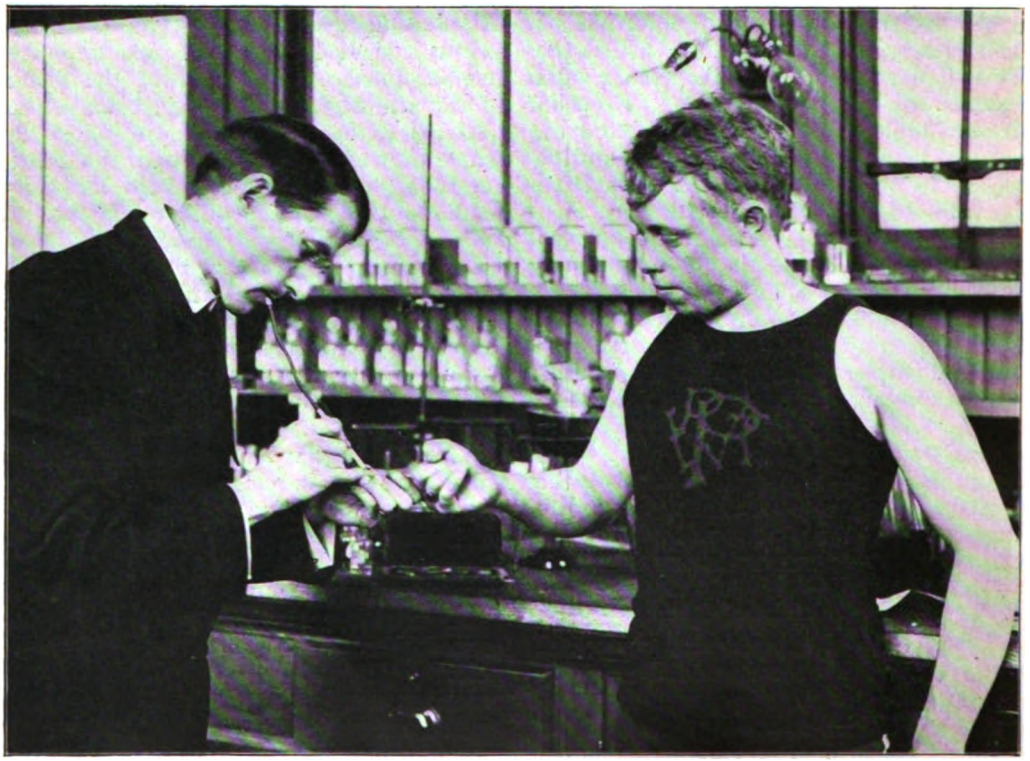
as compared with the increase of 16.6 per cent after sprinting and running, that of 12.8 per cent produced by walking and that of 12 per cent secured as a result of bicycle riding.

"The short swims, continuing not longer than three minutes, produced the large increase of 22.5 per cent in the number of red corpuscles, while the long swims, during which the subject was exceedingly active for a period of fifteen minutes produced the much smaller increase of 13.9 per cent. It is an interesting fact that the average increase of 22.5 per cent in the number of red corpuscles following these short swims was much larger than the increase produced by the short walks (16.8 per cent), short bicycle rides (16.4 per cent) or even by the sprints and short runs (20.3)."

It was also noted that the blood of the average college athlete contains 5,600,000 red corpuscles per cubic millimeter, while that of the average man contains but from 4,500,000 to 5,000,000. Another interesting point is that a run of one hundred yards caused an increase in the number of red corpuscles of 24.8 per cent, while the muscular exertion required in a run of two miles produced an increase of only 8.8 per cent. This has shown that the increase in the number of red corpuscles is inversely proportional to the length of the exercise period. In fact, the entire result of the experiments proves conclusively that strenuous physical exercise indulged in for a short period is followed by a more pronounced increase in the number of blood corpuscles than is exercise of a like character but of greater duration. The first effect therefore of physical exercise of a more or less strenuous order is greatly to increase the number of red corpuscles in the blood and this increase becomes gradually less pronounced as the exercise becomes more prolonged. On this point Dr. Hawk said:

"The indications seem to point toward the possibility of a decrease in the number of red corpuscles as a result of violent muscular exercise sufficiently prolonged. After securing an increase of 1,400,000 as the result of the running of a hundred yard dash, and the relatively insignificant



DR. HAWK DRAWING SAMPLE OF BLOOD FROM A WATER POLO PLAYER.

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RUFUS P. JENNINGS

increase of 400,000 after a two-mile run, it is quite logical, I think, to expect an actual decrease in the number of red corpuscles as a result of sufficiently prolonged muscular exertion. It is my intention to investigate this point further in future."

H. D. JONES.

Working for the State of California

THE economy of centralization is found to be as marked in patriotic organizations as in private or corporate concerns. In California a remarkable work is being undertaken by the California promotion committee, a central organization representing leading patriotic associations of the entire state. These development associations in turn represent the local chambers of commerce, boards of trade and improvement clubs of their section. In this manner every patriotic body in the state is represented in the work of the California promotion committee. The local organizations find a channel of usefulness not only in advertising the community abroad but in improving public conditions at home. It has been found that through a centralization of efforts great results are to be obtained. The record of the California promotion committee shows that in 1903 more than one hundred thousand colonists came to California through the work of the committee, to say nothing of thousands of others of whom no record was kept. The promotion committee represents the five commercial organizations of San Francisco. An advisory board, which is active, consists of the governor, the presidents of California's two great universities and representatives of the commercial organizations throughout the state. The committee sends out two hundred personal letters a day in answer to inquiries, and, in addition, is busy in many matters which pertain to the welfare of the state. The immediate supervision of the work is in charge of Mr. Rufus P. Jennings, an influential merchant of San Francisco, who, as executive officer of the committee, shapes the working policy of the organization. The committee has a working force of fifteen stenographers, besides a corps of writers, lecturers, etc. The success of the work lies in the coöperative policy which has, through the California promotion committee, engaged the patriotic forces of the state in united effort. Mr. Jennings was a Chicago man and has brought the work of the committee to the same systematic basis that prevails in his private business affairs.

HAMILTON WRIGHT.

A FLOATING HOTEL

A New York man takes several hundred children each day for a sail on his vessel At night he rents rooms to persons who prefer quiet and a salt breeze to a hotel lodging

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THE WORLD'S THOUGHT

CRITICAL ESTIMATES OF ANSWERS TO LIVE QUESTIONS

Can We Survive Education?

IN the May number of the *Popular Science Monthly* a woman college graduate discusses with considerable frankness the matter of the birth rate among her sister graduates of colleges. She feels compelled by facts to recognize that such birth rate is low. This fact, she declares, is in a large degree due to education—but not to that of the college. It is the lower school that is the offender. Even in the case of the common school and the high school, it is not the education itself that breaks down the health of women, "it is the way of taking the schooling, the physical demands of it, that have been responsible for most of the invalids that I have happened to know. Alumna's fate was sealed when she was in the grammar school." It would be well for parents having girls in school to ponder these sentences, and, as for that matter, the entire article. There is danger of our educating our cultured families out of existence.

A Suggestion to Young Philosophers

THE writer of one of the two short essays that go to make up "The Point of View" in *Scribner's Magazine* for June is convinced that no one of this generation will be able to write a novel dealing with the Civil War in America. "Your philosopher of forty or less," he says, "is disposed secretly to doubt today that the war was a struggle over an idea, and to go seeking to account for it by a variety of minor selfishnesses, rather than the sweep of well-defined convictions which he thinks accepted tradition has 'idealized.'" If this be true it is well to be forty and over, for we are inclined to think the dictum has considerable truth in it. Our history writers just now are inclined to minimize moral earnestness as a force in society and to magnify political economy. But any sane mind, whether younger or older than forty, knows that sooner or later men find their final inspiration in a search for justice. Their ideas may be crude, and their conceptions of justice singularly untempered with ordinary human sympathy, but it is justice they want. It will be an unhappy time in America when men overlook this fact. We may struggle for economic improvement, but we believe our struggles are right. Convince us that we are morally wrong, and we will promptly cease struggling or frankly turn highwaymen. Philosophers under forty will please take notice!

Is the Schoolma'am a National Peril?

IN their exceedingly interesting report upon the schools in America, the gentlemen who composed the Mosely Commission, about whom we have spoken several times in these pages, express concern as to our school system in an unexpected particular. They fear that our boys are taught by too many women. In other words, they prefer a schoolmaster to a schoolmistress. Their criticism is obviously not born of experience. It is easy enough to say that there ought to be more men teaching in the schools, but that does not at all imply that the American boy has deteriorated under the influence of the American woman. What man who has amounted to anything in the United States has not been taught by women? However strange this fact may seem to Englishmen, it is worthy of their consideration. The Commission seems, on the whole, agreed that the American schools are superior to the English in efficiency. It is a little difficult to harmonize this with its anxiety lest our schools be femi[illegible] The American schoolma'am b[illegible]e share in making the A[illegible] His success is a dem[illegible] has not

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labored in vain. If we may add one more word to the advice we have already showered upon our English cousins, it is that if they really want their schools to be as effective as ours, they had better import a generous quantum of that pedagogical feminism they affect to fear. It will do more toward rejuvenating English industry than the present importation of American heiresses.

How Deep is the Mind?

MR. HERBERT SPENCER in his "Autobiography," writing when possibly seventy-three years of age, declares that "the mind is as deep as the viscera." The sentence is not quite as cryptic in its proper setting, for there it appears as the conclusion of a discussion as to the relation of impoverished and enriched blood to the emotions. Most of us might even regard it as a bit of British pleasantry. Perhaps Mr. Spencer so regarded it, although it is always a little dangerous to ascribe levity to a philosopher. But pleasantry or not, it is a sentence well worth remembering. Some very good people mistake bad digestion for religious contrition, and some very ungodly people mistake good dinners for happiness. The fact is, despite our discussion as to just what the soul is, we all know pretty well what good nature is; and whether we be all mind or all soul, or part body and part soul, we know that good nature is generally less a matter of heart than of the liver. The moral is obvious.

The Amenities of Scientific Discussion

RECENT issues of *Science* have contained a number of criticisms of William J. Long as a student of nature. These articles are marked as much by intemperate rhetoric and general discursiveness as by their length. In a recent number William H. Davis, of Columbia University, devotes eight pages to the discussion of Mr. Long's books, in which he points out errors of John Burroughs, Professor William M. Wheeler, Christian Science, and all the defenders of Mr. Chief among the latter is Mr. ton Wright Mabie, who in Mr. Bliss s words is described as "a genial preacher to the Christian Endeavorers of literature." All of which goes to show that it is unsafe in these days of scientific sweetness and light to describe woodcocks as setting their broken legs in mud casts, or to regard animal doings as in any way arguing human foresight. Probably his critics have found vulnerable spots in Mr. Long's scientific armor—he is not a college professor! But may not even scientists become a bit intolerant? The lay reader is accustomed to be lenient when judging tales of the hunter and fisherman. Now that we are all going to have vacations, suppose we test Mr. Long's stories ourselves!

The Hope that Will Not Out

GOLDWIN SMITH has, for many years, been a man whose opinions have had to be taken into account. He has never been noted for superfluous faith or even optimism, and some of his later writings are depressing. Among these must be classed his recent article, in the May number of the *North American Review*, on Immortality. After speculating as to what will be the results of that loss of a belief in immortality, which he thinks has resulted from the deliverances of physical science, he closes his article with these words: "After all, great is our ignorance, and there may be something yet behind the veil." Coming from a man of eighty-one, this is certainly pathetic, and all the more so since, as his article shows, he shares with Huxley the dislike of annihilation. Sooner or later the Christian Church will see that it can not continue unless it makes this "may be something yet behind the veil" into a certainty that there is somebody behind the veil.

Conscience and the Tax List

WINTHROP M. DANIELS, writing in the *Atlantic Monthly* for June, declares that "if we want to continue to have our tax laws broken at the expense of individual veracity, all we have to do is to continue the present arrangement of self-assessment or declaration of personal property." This sentence "finds" most of us in these days when the sound of the assessor is heard in the land. Most of us

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would probably admit that our moral atmosphere becomes rather misty when it comes to making out lists of personal property. We do not want to be dishonest, but on the other hand we do not want to be mulcted because we are honest. If a rate of taxation is made on the presupposition that 999 people out of a thousand are going to underestimate their property, it is a little hard on the thousandth man who makes out his lists conscientiously. There is opportunity here for improvement, but what improvement? Shall it be of a sort that makes martyrs of the honest exception, or shall it be that which makes the dishonest majority impossible? Most men will prefer the latter. But while awaiting the dawn of the fiscal millennium shall we let the assessors "doom" us?

President Roosevelt and South America

THE foreign press is bestowing much attention upon President Roosevelt's recent letter bearing upon the policy of the United States toward South America. His enemies at home and abroad have seized upon this as a threat of the "big stick" order, and construe it as a warning of possible interference with the South American republics. The London *Times* deprecates such attacks, and intimates that Great Britain thoroughly approves the policy which Mr. Roosevelt has merely reiterated. It is no new thing, and no cause for alarm in Europe. The dangerous thing, says the *Times*, would be if the United States should take the position that it will not interfere in South American affairs under any circumstances, and should still insist under its Monroe doctrine that Europe must keep hands off. As a matter of fact, however European powers may fret over that famous doctrine of ours, they are looking to us for more help than they have had in the past in collecting their South American claims and guarding the rights of their citizens residing in the turbulent republics. Every utterance of an American statesman which seems to take advanced ground on this point of our responsibility for good order in South America is received with delight in financial circles abroad, and with complacency by all the leading powers, except Germany. The only criticism which the really candid foreigners are passing upon our President as to this recent utterance, is that the head of a great nation might better wait until the emergency arises before declaring his position. The London *Times* utters these significant words:

> Intervention upon grounds such as Mr. Roosevelt specifies has happened frequently, and will happen again. He adds that "in the Western Hemisphere the United States can not ignore this duty"—that is to say, the duty of intervention when misgovernment and disorder become outrageous. Why not? Simply because the United States desire to maintain the Monroe doctrine, and recognition of this duty is its corollary. Not even the Government of the United States could afford to outrage the interests of the civilized world and the conscience of its own citizens by forbidding other nations to enforce their just claims on the American continent and at the same time declining on its own account to punish misconduct. That is the contention put forth on behalf of this country at the time of the trouble in Venezuela.

Are Mines More Dangerous Than War?

THE newspapers have been considerably agitated of late over the charge that Russia has set a number of mines adrift along the Chinese coast. "It is an inconceivable outrage on humanity," according to the Philadelphia *Ledger*. It is doubtless true that it is contrary to international usage to make the navigation of the high seas dangerous by the use of mines. The effect of the recklessness of both Russia and Japan in this respect will be to force the leading powers to settle this novel question, and there is no doubt how they will settle it. A mine anchored beyond the three-mile limit is a nuisance of the most dangerous sort, which will have to be abolished. A floating mine, or a mine so insecurely anchored that it breaks from its moorings in a storm, is a menace to commerce which can not be tolerated for a day.

But, after all, is not this new horror simply another appeal against war? What is war but systematized murder? The easiest way to protect non-combatants is to have no belligerents. The longer the Japanese and the Russians fight the more evident does the shame of the situation appear to which civilization finds itself driven. War ought by this time to be an anachronism.

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BOOKS AND READING

The Autobiography of a Philosophy*

By Shailer Mathews

IN his preface Mr. Spencer accounts for the posthumous publication of his autobiography by reference to the fact that "a constitutional lack of reticence is displayed throughout it." His estimate is characteristically correct. If we exclude "confessions" there probably never was a franker autobiography written. Mr. Spencer not only tells us his deeds but his reflections upon his deeds. Nor is his frankness limited to himself. He seems to have been constitutionally unable to allow any error to pass uncorrected. In his autobiography he has gathered together the more important of these corrections as regards his own career. And very interesting they are. It is not that in them he seeks self-justification; it is simply accuracy concerning himself that he desires. In fact, there never was a more impersonal autobiography. For any other person to insert in his autobiography the sort of book review which, in his own estimation, his volumes should have received from journals, would seem the height of self-conceit. In the case of Mr. Spencer the reader feels that it is interest in scientific fair play. Similarly in the case of his elaborate discussion of the hereditary origin of his various qualities. In most persons this would be wearisome conceit; in Mr. Spencer's case it is clearly an application of his philosophy to himself. He has certain phenomena which he wishes to account for. He has his hypothesis to explain them: he, Herbert Spencer, was implicit in his ancestors. And he gives the necessary data.

It is here we approach the most interesting characteristic of the autobiography —its precise revelation of Mr. Spencer's turn of mind. In it he has traced for us the inception of that philosophy, the growth of a system from a germinal idea, the self-sacrificing struggles which attended the publication of his volumes, the triumph of industry and self-control over invalidism, the slowly rising tide of success. It is an intimate history of the Synthetic Philosophy. Whoever masters the autobiography will see that the philosophy is the man. To know him is the best introduction to his system. The smallest thing in life has value as an expression of one of its principles. One will even find the explanation of some of the weaknesses of his philosophy in the ease with which Mr. Spencer generalizes from a single example. Thus the muddy waters of the Nile suggest to him the necessity of highly developed organs of touch for animals which would catch the fishes within it, and his experience at a hotel in Saratoga suggests a philosophy as to the recognition of strangers.

And what of the personality that shows through the pages of these two large volumes? It is certainly not a genial, impulsive lover and fighter like Mr. Huxley. The first conclusion the reader is likely to draw is that Mr. Spencer must have been utterly self-centered, critical and without human affections or a saving sense of humor. Indeed this impression is almost forced upon one by the philosopher himself in his reference to his unfitness for married life. He ventures to think that, because of his peculiar habits of criticism, celibacy was better for him and for the unknown woman he might have married! But the more one studies the volume the more does this first impression disappear, and there emerges from the pages an almost pathetic picture of a chronic invalid mastering his own weakness, loyal to and admired by the very friends he criticizes, asking for the loan of children to make the hours of his weakness less tedious, yet always seeing behind incidents and persons the principles that unify the knowable universe.

The book is thus a revelation of the personal side of a system; a psychological study that can never be duplicated; the autobiography of a philosophy.

*An Autobiography. By Herbert Spencer. New York. D. Appleton & Company. xv, 655; vii, 613 $5.50 net.

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Letters of Lord Acton to Mary Gladstone. Edited with an Introductory Memoir by Herbert Paul. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 353. $1.50 net.

The remarkable learning of the late Lord Acton and his many-sided character are perhaps best displayed in these letters. Although closely associated with Mr. Gladstone, with whom he conducted an extensive correspondence, he maintained an altogether different friendship with the great statesman's highly endowed daughter, in whom he confided state and church secrets of tremendous moment, to whom he expressed himself with amazing frankness on matters political, social and religious. Although he remained a Roman Catholic to the end, the breach between him and the Vatican widened steadily and he stood boldly for Dollinger and all that he represented. In the course of these letters, written sometimes after a busy session of Parliament, sometimes in the intervals of foreign travel, his brilliant mind is displayed by sentences of analysis and criticism that imply whole books; by epigrams without number; by literary appreciations in many fields; by casual remarks upon abstruse problems of ecclesiastical history — one wonders how much Miss Gladstone knew about some of them. He impresses one as a man who might have stood in the front rank of English leaders in the social and political struggles of his time, instead of remaining a powerful and picturesque figure behind the scenes, whose intellect was admired, whose satire was feared, but whose practical efficiency was less than that of many a mediocre contemporary.

History of the United States. By Henry William Elson. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 911. $1.75 net.

One-volume histories which assume to be anything more than text-books for class use are commonly looked down upon by scholars. It is regarded as inevitable that they should be either superficial or ill-balanced. Yet the reading public demands such books, and the demand has been supplied for such histories of most modern nations except the United States. The one-volume histories of the United States have hitherto been little more than outlines for school use. Mr. Elson has undertaken to give, in a volume of reasonable size, such a narrative of American history as intelligent persons who are past their school days desire to read to refresh and systematize their knowledge; suitable also for supplementary reading in schools, to bind together the investigations of separate periods in the larger histories and monographs. He has frankly confessed his purpose to write for the "general reader" instead of for special students, and does not hesitate to base his work largely upon the standard histories by Fiske, McMaster, Schouler, Wilson, Adams and Rhodes. In its proportions the book is remarkably well balanced. The style is simple and attractive, but possesses no particular distinction which could give this history rank as literature. Yet the reader finds that when he begins such chapters as those on the Revolution or the reconstruction period he reads on, with increasing interest, to the end. Mr. Elson's attempt must be accounted a success. He has produced an adequate and stimulating manual which will introduce many persons to the fascinating and voluminous literature of our national history as written by Fiske, Thwaites and other pioneers in this field.

The Man Roosevelt. By Francis E. Leupp. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 341. $1.25 net.

Mr. Leupp's work lacks the effusive laudation of Jacob Riis', and his portrait of the President makes him out more of a man and less of a paragon. Both writers are intimate friends of their hero, and what they have to say of him is naturally to be relied on in regard to matters of fact. But the reader who prefers to form his own opinions from the facts will prefer Mr. Leupp's story. Just how Mr. Roosevelt acted in certain great crises of his political history, what he said, what he did not say, are things which the public is interested to learn from one who has had the privilege of personal intimacy. But it is both better taste and better literary form to let the facts speak for themselves, as Mr. Leupp has done, than to point a moral at every turn. This well-known newspaper correspondent has told us the inside history of several important incidents of the administration, such as the coal strike commission, the Miller affair, the Washington luncheon, the Crum appointment. If he appears at times almost as an attorney for the defense, it is not because he does not recognize the president's manifest weaknesses, but because he denies that these weaknesses have produced any serious results or are responsible for the acts for which he has been most severely criticized. The book will help to a better understanding of Mr. Roosevelt's habits of thought and action, and should certainly exonerate him from some unjust charges.

The History of the Nineteenth Century in Caricature. By Arthur Bartlett Maurice and Frederick Taber Cooper. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 363. $2.50 net.

The fact that political caricature shows the contemporary attitude of the public on great historical events gives vital interest to a review of the work of the last century. Although the book is very readable from the historical standpoint alone, one's attention is held by the evolution of the political cartoon shown in the two hundred and fifty examples that not only reflected but attempted to guide and prophesy current opinion. The evolution of the cartoon is followed from the original development in France under Louis XII. to Holland during the despotic reign of Louis XIV., and then in its migration to Great Britain to flourish under the genius of two men, Hogarth and Gillray. The power of satire is strikingly shown in influence wielded by Gillray during the Napoleonic wars by his audacity and skill with the pencil. After a generation of inactivity political caricature flourished again with the appearance of the modern type of periodical, the comic weekly, such as *La Caricature, Punch, Fliegende Blätter, Puck* and *Judge.* The review of the work of the

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present-day caricaturists shows that the cartoon is now recognized as a powerful factor in political life, and has never before held such sway, maintained such dignity or enlisted so many workers of the first rank and talent. The book is admirably printed on heavy plate paper and is a fine example of modern bookmaking.

The Opening of the Mississippi; a Struggle for Supremacy in the Interior. By Frederic Austin Ogg. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. x, 670. $2 net.

Our author disclaims any desire to add to the growing list of general histories of the Mississippi Valley; his work is, he tells us, "primarily a history of the discovery, exploration and contested rights of navigation of the Mississippi River prior to the final securing of American supremacy by the closing events of the War of 1812." But while the definition of his plan is thus restricted, Mr. Ogg has plainly been embarrassed in trying to keep his subject within bounds. As the central highway of the continental interior, during the long period of exploration and early settlement, nearly every feature of the primitive history of the river bears directly upon "discovery, exploration and contested rights of navigation." The Spanish discovery by De Soto (1541) was as lacking in result as that of our Atlantic seaboard by Lief Erikson, five and a half centuries before. Ninety-three years after De Soto's appearance on the river, the Frenchman Nicolet heard of the Mississippi while visiting tribes in central Wisconsin; and thereafter a desire to reach the giant stream became a pet ambition of the explorers of New France, for it was long thought that upon its current one might reach the much-desired short route to Asia. There is some reason to believe, although our author does not, that the roving fur traders, Radisson and Groseilliers, were upon the river in 1655; and one of the guesses of western historians is that La Salle may have reached it in 1670. At all events, these men have left us no adequate records; the first real exploration, starting out with a definite purpose and accomplishing it, was the expedition of Louis Jolliet—Mr. Ogg still clings to the now obsolete single "l"—and Father Jacques Marquette in 1673. From that day forward, the French held stoutly to the possession of the Mississippi as the chief connecting path between their settlements in Canada and Louisiana; and the subsequent protracted and bloody contest with England for mastery in the valley of the Ohio was but a chapter in the story, for the latter, with its string of easy portages southward from the Great Lakes, was the principal eastern gateway to the Mississippi. The dissolution of New France was in large measure the result of the inability of its government to maintain control of the paths of the Ohio and the Mississippi—the English undermining them on the Ohio, and the Fox Indians of Wisconsin causing them fairly to fight their way to the Mississippi through the alternative northern gateway, the trade-route of the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers. Soon after England succeeded France in the political ownership of the interior, the Revolution broke out, and it was recognized that the mastery of the Mississippi was essential to American success. The brilliant exploits of George Rogers Clark were necessitated in large part by the need to maintain control of the river, and much of the subsequent maneuvering had this object in view. The need for holding the great artery of commerce led to diplomatic flurries between the United States and Spain; to the discontent of the Kentuckians, of which Genet sought to take advantage in his proposed filibustering movement against the Spanish settlements of the Southwest; to the acquisition from France of the trans-Mississippi territory, the event which the old Spanish capital of St. Louis is now so lustily celebrating; and, lastly, to the expedition of Lewis and Clark up the great river's principal western gateway, and across the divide to the Pacific—an incident prolific, this year, of important historical publications, and next year to be "pointed to with pride" at the projected Portland exposition. Mr. Ogg has, on the whole, given us a satisfactory treatment of this splendid march of events; and, while attempting to limit his scope, he has necessarily given us a general history of the great valley, which is one of the most interesting, scholarly and important that has thus far appeared. A more liberal supply of maps would have enhanced the value of the book, and the index is insufficient; but the mechanical appearance is attractive, and the literary style, while somewhat dry, is direct and forceful.

The Story of New Zealand. By Frank Parsons. Philadelphia: C. F. Taylor. Pp. 860. $3 net.

This is one of the most fascinating books of the year for all students of politics and economics. It is known to most people in a general way that New Zealand is the most advanced country in the world in many forms of labor and land legislation. The late Henry D. Lloyd paid much attention to its experiments in this field, but Professor Parsons' handsome volume is the most complete summary of all that has been accomplished. It includes a history of the colony, a description of its resources, and an elaborate discussion of the economic situation in the past and the present, based on thorough study of the sources. Numerous illustrations add to the attractiveness of a book singularly fresh and stimulating in its method and contents. It should have a wide reading.

Dollars and Democracy. By Sir Philip Burne-Jones. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 244. $1.25 net.

Sir Philip Burne-Jones spent a long enough time in New York to avoid some of the worst blunders of the foreign tourist in his inevitable book. His travels through the rest of the country were so brief that he is no more fortunate than the rest of the globe-trotters. In Chicago, for example, he happened to encounter one of the dreariest weeks of the year, when the mud was stickiest and the fog thickest, and in addition to that a yellow reporter happened to pick him out for a "feature story." The combination was undeniably trying, and Chicagoans can probably forgive the genial Briton for his ill-

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nature. He has written an amusing and shallow sketch of some phases of New York society, illustrated with rough drawings of the cartoon order, which serves to pass an idle hour very pleasantly. Whenever he takes himself seriously he is most amusing — but that is not often. A generous recognition of the mitigating qualities of American telephones and bathtubs and ice water differentiates him from some less discriminating fellow countrymen of his who have found absolutely nothing that touched their hearts except the winding streets of dear old Boston. The most astonishing thing about the performance is that a son of Sir Edward Burne-Jones should have written it. Great are the surprises of heredity.

Japan as Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Edited and translated by Esther Singleton. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 372. $1.60 net.

Russia as Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Edited and translated by Esther Singleton. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 361. $1.60 net.

It was a clever idea to gather in a single volume a large number of extracts and essays on Japan and the Japanese by many contemporary writers. Just at present the western world is eager for more information about the nation which is defying the Russian bear, and no one traveler can give a view of Japanese life which is free from the charge of incompleteness. We have in the present collection brief chapters by fifteen or twenty well-known writers, including such men as the French geographer Reclus, the travelers Lafcadio Hearn and Isabella Bird Bishop, the literary leaders Pierre Loti and Edwin Arnold, and many newspaper correspondents, artists and historians. These have been edited, the French essays translated, and the whole admirably illustrated with half-tones of Japanese scenery. Perhaps no other single volume gives so complete a picture of the island kingdom with its many-sided life.

In the volume on Russia such writers as Prince Kropotkin, Harry De Windt, Theophile Gautier, H. Sutherland Edwards, and many equally well known are represented. Particular attention is given to the description of Russian cities with their characteristic architecture, street scenes and local customs. The life of the peasantry, with all the curious festival ceremonials and traditions, is treated by several writers. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen. These two companion volumes are well adapted to remove many of the misapprehensions current in regard to the two warring nations of the Far East.

Russia, Her Strength and Her Weakness. By Wolf Von Schierbrand. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. iii, 304.

Most of the books dealing with Russia which have appeared lately have treated the empire with considerable favor. This volume of Mr. Von Schierbrand is an exception. Unlike the work of Senator Beveridge, it is less a presentation of the strength of Russia than of her weakness. It is in truth a most alarming picture that it draws of the inner condition of the empire. Even "the black earth belt" which is the center of Russia's agriculture is shown by him to be rapidly exhausted. Other dangers Mr. Von Schierbrand discovers in almost every department of Russian life. The nobility, the church, the peasantry, all are judged by him to be degenerating. Even the financial success of M. Witte is a "bamboozling" of the foreign lender. The book masses facts in a telling way, and however one may regard its portrayal as lacking in impartiality, its facts must be reckoned with. The man who wants to know the weaknesses of Russia will do well to examine it.

The American Natural History. A Foundation of Useful Knowledge of the Higher Animals of North America. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xxv, 449. $3.50 net.

In this splendid volume the director of the New York Zoological Park has given the general reader a volume which, in a high degree, combines scientific accuracy with literary interest. It will be especially valuable for young people who have become interested in natural history. The volume is broken into five books, each dealing with one of the great classes of animals, and these books in turn are broken into chapters devoted to the various orders. The table of contents is thus a general outline of animal life. The author has made his book something more than a mere scientific treatise, and has repeatedly added anecdotes which are as interesting as some others which are less trustworthy. The publishers have spared no expense in the matter of illustrations, and the book is sure to become the standard book of natural history in every intelligent family.

Mankind in the Making. By H. G. Wells. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 400. $1.50 net.

The author of "Anticipations" has produced another book of keen criticism of the existing social order and constructive suggestions for the reform of education, government and society. He is master of a vivid, nervous style, rich in unexpected turns of expression, and is given to sarcasm of a good-natured but none the less incisive character. Among the problems considered in this volume are the problem of the birth supply, primary and secondary education, the difficulties of securing efficient service in a democracy, and similar questions. The value of Mr. Wells' work is chiefly in its stimulus to independent thinking. One doubts whether to take him seriously in many of his predictions, but there can be no question of his insight and vigor when he attacks time-honored conventionalities and ideas. The British school system comes in for severe criticism, from the kindergartens to the universities. It is evident that Mr. Wells knows little of the progress which has been made in the United States in many branches of education. His few references to American methods are general and vague. But in so far as he discusses problems of "man-

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making" in the large his principles hold good in any English-speaking country. Teachers, parents, students of economic and social science, will find in every chapter bits of wholesome iconoclasm which will lead to earnest efforts for reform.

A Selection from the World's Greatest Orations. By Sherwin Cody. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. Pp. 518. $1 net.

Unusual breadth of selection and discrimination are shown by Mr. Cody in his volumes of famous pieces of literature. This book of orations differs from the ordinary "school speaker" in that it avoids the hackneyed declamations and includes a large number of masterpieces of oratory not hitherto available in such a collection. Among the orators represented are Demosthenes, Cicero, Savonarola, Bossuet, Mirabeau, Chatham, Burke, Fox, Grattan, Henry, Webster and Beecher. The introductory notes are sensible and illuminating.

The Life of Jesus. By Oscar Holtzmann, D.D. Translated by J. T. Bealby, B.A., and Maurice A. Conney, M.A. London: Adam and Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. vii, 542. $4 net.

In the three years since it first appeared in its German form, Professor Holtzmann's work has won for itself a commanding position in theological literature. Its author is singularly well fitted for his task, both as a critic and historian. His volume may be taken as a fair representation of the more constructive results of the present theological study in Germany. In this it is perhaps noticeable that the stories of his birth are discounted and Jesus is made the son of Joseph and Mary. At the same time the stories of the resurrection are treated more seriously. Professor Holtzmann accepts the historicity of the appearances of Jesus to various disciples although holding that they were of the nature of visions, and that the accounts in the gospels have been to a certain extent materialized. And this on the basis of a critical position which will seem to most of us a vagary —the rejection of the Gospel of John as practically without any historical value, the acceptance of the Gospel of the Hebrews.

That which has given the volume its position in the theological world, is the author's careful sifting of the facts contained in the sources used by him, and his refusal to explain away the results of that criticism by appeal to philosophical difficulties. His interest is in fact less that of a philosopher and theologian than of a historian. In this capacity he has given us material that will deserve most careful consideration and will be of real help to any serious student of the gospels. The volume is one to be commended to every thoughtful minister, not so much as one that will command assent to all its positions, as one which will stimulate investigation and show that the most impartial student is not of necessity compelled to take the negative position of the Encyclopedia Biblica. What the book lacks in vivacity is more than made up in its power to stimulate thought.

An Introduction to the Bible for Teachers of Children. By Georgia Louise Chamberlin. The University of Chicago Press. Pp. ix., 206. $1.00.

There is no greater need in Sunday school training than explicit directions for teachers who would but can not take up new methods. We have plenty of books upon methods in general, but many of these are written by persons who know nothing about genuine Bible study. Miss Chamberlin, who has been for years secretary of the American Institute of Sacred Literature, and is an exceptionally successful Sunday school teacher, has in the present book brought together precisely the sort of directions which a teacher of a class of boys and girls about ten to twelve years of age needs. The volume belongs to a series of Constructive Bible Studies edited by President Harper and Professor Burton of the University of Chicago, and therefore represents the best sort of scholarship. The book is especially deserving of confidence in that it is the result of actual experience in training children. If the teacher will follow its directions given for each lesson, the effect upon the Sunday school will be electric. The bibliography attached each chapter is well selected. With the boo publishers will furnish printed material f assistance of the teacher in assigning le We can not too strongly recommend this introduction and urge every Sunday school superintendent and teacher to begin its use immediately. It will help do away with most of the stock objections to proper methods of teaching children.

The Crossing. By Winston Churchill. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. vii, 598. $1.50.

Winston Churchill is one of the few popular writers who refuse to commit suicide by overproduction. As a result each of his books is an achievement. "The Crossing" is a long novel—possibly too long. Like other of Mr. Churchill's novels, it carries the reader over a broad territory and across a long series of years. Yet this breadth of treatment is inevitable for one who, like Mr. Churchill, conceives of the novelist's task as something more than relating a succession of adventures. "The Crossing" is a cross section of history. It covers that early period of United States history when Kentucky was being settled and the control of the Mississippi was still an open question. Most readers will probably agree that the first book is the strongest of the three in which the story is divided. It will attract the historian and mere novel reader alike, and it is a question whether it has ever been surpassed as a picture of the struggles of the pioneer. It has such unity and craftsmanship as would justify its publication as a separate volume. Made, as it now is, a part of a longer autobiography, it almost overtops the rather featureless history of the hero's later years. Indeed it is sometimes difficult to see just how the two halves of the volume are wrought together into a genuine literary unity.

Yet, after all, such a criticism is really confession of an embarrassment of riches. "The

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Crossing'' shows beyond a question that Mr. Churchill has passed the age of experimenting. ''Richard Carvel'' was full of splendid promise which ''The Crossing'' fulfils. It is essentially a man's book, and as such deserves an even larger success than has attended Mr. Churchill's earlier works.

The Queen's Quair; or, The Six Years' Tragedy. By Maurice Hewlett. The Macmillan Company. Pp. 505. $1.50.

In the story of ''Mary Queen of Scots,'' Mr. Hewlett has a most congenial theme. ''The Queen's Quair'' has all the passion of ''Richard Yea and Nay,'' but, if we may use the word, is less decorative. Mr. Hewlett's style is not easy reading for one accustomed to skim the ordinary output of novels, but it compels attention. For the reader who cares actually to read, his work is all but incomparable. Possibly Henry James can follow intellectual motives more subtly, but no living writer can lay bare human passions, great and small, as can he. His characters actually live. His women are women and his men are men. The present volume is the [illegible] splendid piece of work in the region of [illegible]ical pictures which has appeared since [illegible]'s ''French Revolution.'' The unfortu[illegible] Queen is not discussed; she simply is made to live before the reader. Compared with Mr. Hewlett's pictures historical novels of the ordinary type appear tawdry. Yet he never strains after effects. His description of the assassination of David Rizzio is perhaps the most thrilling chapter in recent literature, but it is almost barren of rhetorical device. All in all, ''The Queen's Quair,'' although it may not be the most popular or the best selling book of the season, is one of the few books which will survive. For it is literature—genuine literature.

The Cost. By David Graham Phillips. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company. Pp. 402. $1.50.

The chief criticism to be placed upon this story would be that it violates the principles of unity which we were taught in our rhetoric to regard as essential for good literature. But, like so many other things which fall short of conventional standards, it has such movement and realism as to completely master its reader. As a story it has no complicated plot. It is really a collection of independent stories which gain a measure of unity through the identity of their characters and their relation to Pauline, the central character of the book. This structure, which is becoming so characteristic of the writers who have come up through journalism, gives opportunity for detailed and intensely realistic treatment of matters peculiarly American. A tremendous struggle in Wall Street for the control of a vast corporation, a political campaign and convention for which the first nomination of Mr. Bryan evidently served as model, the life in a western college, all these are treated in such a way as to make their characters actually live before the reader's eye. But, as in the other works of Mr. Phillips, these stories are really intended to do something more than to entertain; they are serious studies into the effect of conscienceless search for wealth upon a man's character and family. It is no attractive picture that Mr. Phillips draws of the American financier at home and in politics, and although, like any good novelist, he does not preach, the book is sure to arouse the conscience as well as the interest. It is a strong book and one that should be read by every ambitious young man in college.

Fiction

A volume of stories by Thomas Nelson Page is always sure of a welcome from his thousands of admirers. ''Bred in the Bone'' (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, $1.50) contains seven tales of Virginia, old and new, in the style that the author has made famous. Most of them are humorous, and there are one or two sketches of the new-fashioned city negro with his wide differences from the old plantation ''darky.''

Mr. James B. Connolly has a field practically to himself as a writer of stories of fishermen. Occasionally a man or woman has attempted to exploit the adventures of his heroes, but no one except Kipling has yet touched the level of Mr. Connolly's short stories. ''The Seiners'' (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, $1.50), is his first genuine novel, but it is less a novel than a collection of tales. Its plot is vague and never obtrusive. None the less the book is capital reading and will stir the love of the sea in the breast of any one who ever watched the tide come in. Its men are of flesh, blood and spirit.

Something like a year ago Frances Powell published a rather lurid novel, ''The House on the Hudson.'' It showed decided ability but also considerable crudity. In her latest book, ''The By-ways of Braithe'' (New York: Scribner's Sons, $1.50), decided advance is shown. It still deals with melodramatic and often highly improbable conditions. Mysterious passages, thefts of jewels, soulless sisters, rascally cousins and a post-nuptial courtship of a wife by her husband, go together to make up a story which is always interesting and sometimes absorbing.

Anything that Edith Wharton publishes is welcome, even though, like ''The Descent of Man'' (Scribner's, $1.50), it is a collection of stories which have already appeared in magazines. The present volume shows the author's usual mastery of technic and precise estimate of values. Occasionally it is a trifle obscure and makes rather severe demands upon the creative powers of the reader. No lover of good literature, however, can afford to miss reading it.

It is rare that one reads a story of higher sentiment and of more appealing interest than ''The Woodcarver of 'Lympus,'' by M. E. Waller (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50). It is the account of a few years in the life of a splendid young New Englander whose legs had become paralyzed through an accident in the forest. How he was saved from utter despair by the friendship of a few strong souls and how he was introduced into the world of literature and given opportunity to exercise his skill as a woodcarver, make a book which is not only interesting, but capable of doing good. Neither its moral nor its character can be easily forgotten.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Casualties.—May 22.—An explosion in the fireworks factory at Findlay, Ohio, killed five persons and seriously injured twenty. Four others were missing, supposedly blown to atoms.

—May 25.— The business district of Yazoo City, Mississippi, was destroyed by fire. The loss was estimated at between $1,500,000 and $2,000,000.

Cotton.—May 27.—Experts of the Department of Agriculture announced the discovery of an ant in Guatemala that preys on the cotton boll-weevil. Plans were laid for introducing it into cotton-growing states.

Deaths.—May 28.—United States Senator Matthew S. Quay died at Beaver, Pennsylvania.

—May 30.—Mayor Robert M. McLane, of Baltimore, committed suicide.

Education.— May 20.—It was decided to remove the Carlisle Indian School from Carlisle, Pennsylvania, to Helena, Montana.

—June 7.—Dr. Charles Richard Van Hise was inaugurated president of the University of Wisconsin. The institution was celebrating the fiftieth year of its existence.

Labor.—May 23.—Brigadier-General Sherman Bell resigned his commission as adjutant-general of the Colorado militia on the ground that the militia was used as a tool of the large Colorado corporations.

—June 6.—Thirteen non-union miners were killed outright and eight seriously injured by the explosion of an infernal machine placed under the railroad station platform at Independence, Colorado. A riot resulted in the neighboring town of Victor between union miners and the militia, two miners being killed, thirty-one injured and many arrested and confined in the military bull-pen....The Colorado supreme court refused the application for a writ of habeas corpus for President Charles H. Moyer, of the Western Federation of Miners, who was held as a military prisoner at Telluride, by order of Governor James H. Peabody. The governor was declared by the court to have sole power to determine when and where a state of insurrection existed, to use the military to suppress such insurrection, to imprison or put to death insurrectionists when necessary and that the civil courts had no right to interfere with the governor's prerogative.

SENATOR MATTHEW S. QUAY
Died May 28, 1904

HISTORICAL LIBRARY, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

Lynching.—May 15.—A negro was lynched at Appling, Columbia county, Georgia.

—May 23.—A negro was lynched at O'Neill, Mississippi, on the charge of murdering Robert Logan, a sawmill man.

—June 3.—Three negroes were lynched near Greenville, Mississippi, in connection with the murder by blacks of John Sims, a planter, and his manager, of the name of Cato.

Navy.—May 17.—The new United States battleship Rhode Island was launched at Quincy, Massachusetts.

—May 21.—The United States battleship Kentucky reached New York after a world's record run from Hong-Kong.

Negroes.—May 16.—Governor Blanchard, in his inaugural address, pledged Louisiana to protect the negro.

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Politics.—May 15.—Of 812 delegates chosen for the Republican national convention 628 were instructed for Roosevelt.

—May 20.—The Illinois Republican convention, unable to break the deadlock on the governorship, adjourned until May 31.

—May 31.—The Illinois Republican convention reassembled and the deadlock showed no signs of breaking.

—June 3.—Charles S. Deneen, of Chicago, was nominated for governor by the Illinois Republican convention after an unprecedented deadlock necessitating seventy-nine ballots.

—May 20.—The La Follette and "Stalwart" factions of the Republican party of Wisconsin held each a state convention at Madison and nominated separate tickets for state officers but the same candidates for presidential electors.

—May 26.—The postoffice department prepared fraud orders against nearly one hundred patent-medicine concerns for alleged operation in violation of law.

Racing.—May 18.—The Western Union Telegraph Company issued an order that no more racing news should be dispatched over its wires from racetracks except in the form of regular messages.

Red Cross.—May 14.—Miss Clara Barton resigned from the presidency of the American Red Cross Society and was succeeded by Mrs. John A. Logan.

Religion.—May 19.—The Presbyterian general assembly unanimously elected Rev. James Addison Henry, of Philadelphia, moderator.

—May 26.—The Methodist General Conference, in session at Los Angeles, consecrated eleven newly elected bishops.

—May 27.—The Presbyterian General Assembly voted overwhelmingly in favor of union with the Cumberland Presbyterian Church. It remained necessary for each branch to ratify this action by a two-thirds majority. The Methodist Conference decided, by a vote of 441 to 188, not to change the existing law of the church on amusements.

—May 28.—The Presbyterian General Assembly memorialized the United States Senate to expel Reed Smoot.

Supreme Court.—May 16.—The United States Supreme Court upheld the action of the immigration authorities at New York in ordering the deportation of the English anarchist, John Turner.

—May 31.—The United States Supreme Court announced its decision upholding the oleomargarine law.

Women's Clubs.—May 23.—Mrs. Sarah Platt Decker, of Colorado, was elected president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

MISS ALICE ROOSEVELT AT THE PHILADELPHIA COACHING PARADE

Philippine Islands

Moros.—May 23.—Moros massacred fifty-three Filipino men, women and children near Malabang, Mindanao.

Ricarte.—May 30.—Artemiso Ricarte, the former Filipino insurgent leader, was captured by the constabulary in Luzon and sent to Guam in exile.

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San Domingo

Revolution.—May 14.—Government troops were defeated at Navarette by insurgents, with the loss of fifty-four men killed and sixty-seven wounded.

—May 26.—Dominican troops were routed by revolutionists at Esperanza, and General Raoul Cabrera, minister of war, was killed. The revolutionists pursued the government troops to Navarette.

—June 4.—Peace was established in San Domingo through the good offices of Commander Dillingham of the United States Navy. The government agreed to grant the insurgents life and liberty and to pay their debts, and the insurgents agreed to lay down arms and recognize the government of President Morales.

Colombia

Diplomacy.—May 24.—Colombia notified the United States government not to send any diplomatic representative to Bogota until further notice.

Peru

Labor.—May 19.—In a serious riot of striking dock laborers at Callao one striker was killed and seven injured by shots fired.

Chile

Cabinet.—May 17.—The new liberal ministry resigned after a four days' term of office, because of a disagreement over the election of a president of the senate.

Uruguay

Revolution.—May 23.—President Ordonnez announced a victory of government troops over the revolutionists under General Muniz. Eighty revolutionists were killed and 200 wounded.

British Empire

Parliament.—May 17.—Lord Hardwicke, under secretary for war, stated in the House of Commons that Great Britain was at war with Tibet, and that until Britain had vindicated her position by force of arms, he did not think the government ought to be called on to give a definite pledge as to what form of settlement would follow the conclusion of hostilities.

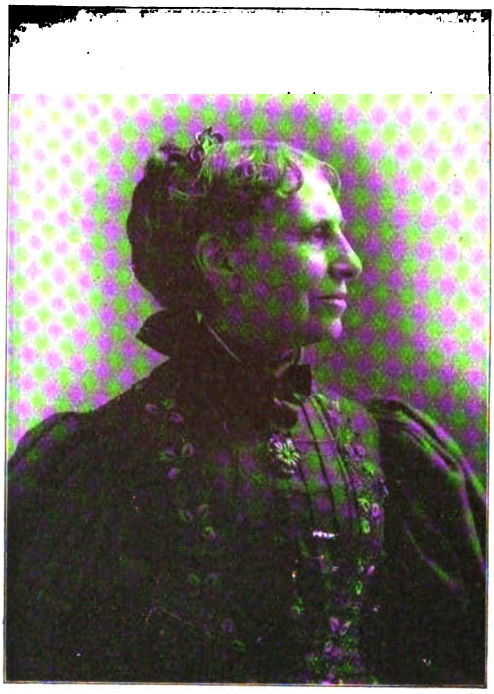
France

Marchand.—May 17.—The resignation of Colonel Marchand from the French army was accepted.

Vatican.—May 21.—France broke off diplomatic relations with the Holy See, recalling Ambassador Nisard from the Vatican, because of the protest issued to the Catholic powers of Europe against President Loubet's visiting the king of Italy without visiting the pope.

—May 28.—By a vote of 427 to 95 the French Chamber of Deputies approved the action of the government in recalling the French ambassador, M. Nisard, from the Vatican.

Riot.—June 2.—A mob of 1,000 wrecked the pulpit and overturned the statues in St. Jean's church, Toulon, because of the pastor's refusal to admit children to their first communion who had sung anti-clerical songs.



MISS CLARA BARTON
Retiring President of the Red Cross Society

Navy.—June 3.—The new naval budget called for $62,000,000, this being $1,050,000 above the budget for the current year.

Holland

Dutch East Indies.—Achinese.—May 28.—Dutch troops quelled a revolt of Achinese fanatics near the village of Sidoarko, Java, killing seventy-two rebels and arresting twelve ringleaders.

Portugal

Treaty.—June 2.—A treaty of arbitration was signed between Spain and Portugal at Lisbon.

German Empire

Army.—May 14.—The German government decided to increase the forces in southwest Africa to 6,000 men.

Deaths.—May 30.—The Grand Duke Friedrich Wilhelm, of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, died at the age of eighty-five years.

Cable.—June 2.—The last section of the cable connecting Germany and America was completed.

Austria-Hungary

Budget.—May 26.—The budget committee of the Austrian delegation at Budapest passed the extraordinary credits for the army and navy, amounting to $33,000,000.

Russian Empire

Hardinge.—May 26.—Sir Charles Hardinge, the new British ambassador to Russia, presented his credentials to the Czar.

Russo-Japanese War.—See Japan.

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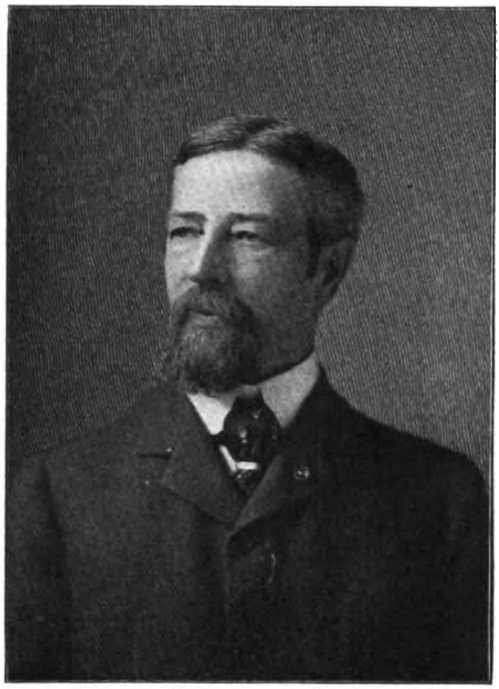

GEORGE F. BAER
Head of the so-called Anthracite Trust

Morocco

Perdicaris.—May 18.—Ion Perdicaris, a wealthy native American citizen of Greek parentage, and Cromwell Varley, his English stepson, were kidnapped by Moroccan bandits, under Chief Raisuli.

—May 20.—The United States South Atlantic squadron was ordered to Tangier, to assist in releasing Perdicaris and Varley from the bandits.

—May 22.—The Moroccan government accepted the terms proposed by Bandit Raisuli.

—May 28.—The United States government decided to reject the demands of Bandit Raisuli for a pardon and guarantee of safety besides a large ransom for the release of Ion Perdicaris and Cromwell Varley. The United States warships Brooklyn, Baltimore and Cleveland sailed for Tangier.

—May 30.—The United States and British governments informed the sultan of Morocco that they could not accede to the demands of the bandit Raisuli and intimated that unless Ion Perdicaris and Cromwell Varley were released they would take the matter into their own hands.

—June 3.—Bandit Raisuli issued an ultimatum concerning his demands, fixing a time limit for an answer.

Chinese Empire

Ports.—May 18.—China opened the ports of Weishien, Chowcheen, Chinanfu and Choutsun to the commerce of the world.

Tibet.

War.—May 15.—The siege of the British camp at Gyangtse continued, the lamas having proclaimed a holy war.

—May 26.—British soldiers from the camp at Gyangtse, after a fight of eleven hours, dislodged the Tibetans from the neighboring walled village of Palla. A British lieutenant and three Sepoys were killed and three officers and nine men were wounded. The Tibetans lost heavily, thirty-seven being captured.

Korea

Annulments.—May 18.—The Korean government, by imperial decree, annulled all treaties and agreements with Russia, including the Yalu timber concessions.

Japan

Russo-Japanese War.—May 15.—The Japanese battleship Hatsuse struck a Russian mine near Port Arthur and the Japanese steel cruiser Mikayo struck a Russian mine in Talienwan Bay. Both were sunk. Also the Japanese cruiser Yoshino was sunk near Port Arthur by colliding in a fog with the Japanese cruiser Kasagu. Only ninety men on the Yoshino and 300 on the Hatsuse escaped drowning. Altogether, 653 men were lost. Admiral Wittsoeft reported that a Japanese fleet had blockaded Port Arthur since May 5, and that repairs to the disabled warships Retvizan and Czarewitch were making successfully.

—May 16.—Russians attacked the town of Anju, whence the Japanese garrison retired in good order after setting fire to the buildings.

—May 17.—A proclamation signed by Admiral Alexieff was posted throughout Manchuria, warning the Chinese against harboring bandits, declaring that those doing so would be shot and their villages burned. Lieutenant-General Count Keller, governor of Ekaterinoslav, Russia, was appointed to supersede Lieutenant-General Zassalitch as commander of the second Siberian army division, which was defeated under Zassalitch in the battle of the Yalu, May 1.

—May 20.—The Russian protected cruiser Bogatyr, of the Vladivostok fleet, became stranded on the rocks in the harbor and was blown up by the Russians to prevent it from falling into the hands of the Japanese. . . . Admiral Hozoya's squadron bombarded Taku-Shan, and then the third Japanese army was landed.

—May 22.—Vice-Admiral Nicholas Skrydloff arrived in Vladivostok and took command of the fleet there.

—May 24.—A Japanese infantry detachment defeated, without loss, 200 Cossacks eight miles northeast of Kuangtien. Twenty Cossacks were left dead on the field.

—May 26.—The Japanese captured by storm, after a five-days' battle, the town of Kinchow and the neighboring hill of Nanshan from the Russians. This victory brought the Japanese within thirty-two miles of Port Arthur. The Japanese lost 4,304 men and the Russians 830 killed and wounded.

—June 4.—The Russian gunboat Giliak was destroyed by a torpedo at Port Arthur.

—June 5.—Field-Marshal Yamagata was appointed commander-in-chief of the Japanese armies in the field, and viceroy of all the territory occupied by the Japanese army subsequent to the outbreak of the war.

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THE MARK OF MERIT

The value of a magazine, from the standpoint of the publisher and the advertiser, depends upon its hold on the subscriber. The fact that a man subscribes for a magazine does not always indicate that he reads it. The magazine that is read — that has in it qualities that make subscribers feel that in reading it their time and money have not been wasted — has the real mark of merit. THE WORLD TO-DAY is a magazine of that stamp.

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Born October 27, 1858
Graduated at Harvard, 1880
Member New York Legislature, 1882-4
National Civil Service Commissioner, 1889-95
President New York Police Board, 1895-7

Assistant Secretary United States Navy, 1897-8
Colonel 1st U. S. Cavalry Volunteers, 1898
Governor of New York, 1899-1900
Vice-President of the United States, 1900-1
President of the United States, 1901

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The World To-Day

VOLUME VII. AUGUST, 1904. NUMBER 2

The Issue Behind the Platforms

THE American citizen frequently, perhaps generally, votes upon issues not to be found in the platform of his party. He prefers not to lay a straight course to reform. He tacks, forcing even head winds to help him forward. It is not strange, therefore, to find the two great political parties ignoring an issue to which no man of us is blind. And this issue is this: Shall the conditions of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness in the United States be set by the representatives of the people, or by the directors of corporations?

* * *

This is a social more than a political question. Radicals wish it to become a basis of political grouping, but there is danger in their zeal. Such grouping would mean the transfer of the struggle between social classes for economic advantage to the field of politics. It would mean a struggle between those who have privileges and those who demand more privileges, and this would mean ultimately a struggle between socialists and anti-socialists.

Such a situation may some day be unavoidable. It is so already in various towns of New England, and, if the Western Federation of Miners is to be believed, in Colorado. But no one who knows anything of political history wants it forced upon the country at large. We can accomplish more permanent results with less bitterness by indirect methods. We do not want to see the end of our present "two-party"

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politics, that safeguard of conservative progress. Germany, with its motley crowd of small parties, each standing for a definite issue, is no model for the United States. Neither is France, with its spectacularly variegated Chamber of Deputies Two great parties, each strong enough to elect its candidate on conventional party lines, two or three small parties of radicals strong enough to irritate the real masters of the country into righting certain wrongs, but not strong enough to elect their own candidates—this, just now, is our best political status. The country is not ready for a struggle between classes.

* * *

One thing stands out clear in the platforms of the two great political conventions: There is no genuinely political issue before the American people. Since the reorganization of the Democratic party it stands on practically the same ground as the Republican party. Perhaps it is to be even more responsive to the leaders in high finance. Both alike must face the new problems of a new age in accordance with the precedents established by the last six years. In a striking way the campaign of 1904 is a repetition of that of 1864, in that it asks whether the future shall be determined by the immediate past or by the remote past. The nation has already answered the question. It will respond to the old cries only in order to elect men to meet new issues. The rank and file of Americans care very little about the two platforms. They look behind both. They want the national government, whichever party wins, to hold an imperial republic in trust for the average man.

* * *

Are we to revert to a more or less benevolent feudalism, or are we to remain a democracy?

This is the real issue of the campaign. You will not find it in the platforms, but you will find it in men's hearts. We do not want to vote on it, but we do want it met and settled by the men for whom we vote. To neglect it, to scorn it, to dodge it, to play the demagogue with it, will mean a new alignment in the political field. And if that alignment is ever made, the United States will face a situation more critical than it has faced since 1860.

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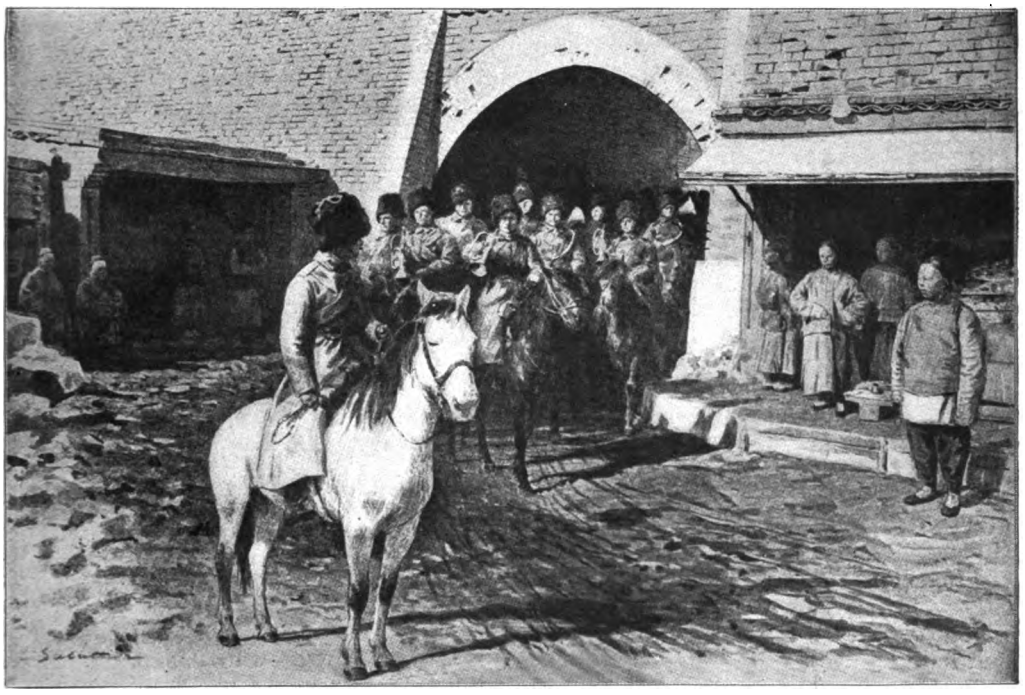
EVENTS OF THE MONTH

World Politics

The Russo-Japanese War: The Navies

Another month has passed and Russia has gained no advantage over the Japanese beyond the destruction of three Japanese transports and two merchant vessels off the coast of Korea by the Vladivostok squadron. Otherwise, on both land and sea, fortune continues to favor the Mikado. Ever since Admiral Skrydloff has made his headquarters at Vladivostok, he seems to have been trying to effect a junction with the Port Arthur squadron, though the Russian authorities assert that his sallies are merely to cause diversions from the investment of Port Arthur. On the morning of June 15, the Rossia and Rurik waylaid the Japanese transport Hitachi, at Iki Island, and sunk the vessel, which was carrying 700 soldiers. About twenty per cent of these Japanese soldiers and the crew escaped drowning by clinging to wreckage until they drifted to some small islands in the Straits of Korea. Later on the same day the Russian cruiser Gromoboi destroyed the Japanese transport Sado at Oki (or Iki?) Island. Of the fourteen hundred Japanese soldiers on the two transports nine hundred were killed. They preferred drowning to surrender. Some time during this sortie the Vladivostok fleet destroyed also the Japanese transport Idsumi. Then the three cruisers returned safely to Vladivostok, skilfully eluding the pursuit of Admiral Kamimura. The latter has been severely criticized by his compatriots for letting the Vladivostok fleet escape. Again, on or about the night of June 28, this squadron stole forth, accompanied by ten torpedo boats, which must have been shipped piecemeal from Kronstadt by railroad and put together at Vladivostok. Six of these torpedo boats entered Gensan harbor early on the morning of June 30, sank a Japanese merchantman and coasting schooner and fired 200 shells into the town before sailing away in a southeasterly direction with the cruisers. Reports that it later encountered Kamimura's squadron have



THE RUSSIAN ARMY AT LIAOYANG

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not been confirmed. Admiral Togo continues to guard the Port Arthur squadron, driving in all vessels attempting a sortie. Admiral Wittsoeft has reported that all the Russian vessels sunk or damaged early in the war have been repaired, but we have only his word for it. On the night of June 23, Admiral Togo forestalled a sortie by sending into Port Arthur harbor some torpedo boats, which sank the cruiser Peresviet and disabled the cruiser Sevastopol. The Peresviet was one of the finest Russian warships, having a displacement of 12,674 tons, a speed of eighteen knots and an armament of thirty-one guns. The Sevastopol has a tonnage of 10,960 tons, a speed of seventeen and a half knots and an armament of sixteen rifled guns. Togo reports that on the night of June 27, he sank also a Russian guardship and a Russian torpedo-boat destroyer in Port Arthur harbor, losing only fourteen men killed and three wounded. On or about the night of July 2 Admiral Togo again sent torpedo boats into Port Arthur harbor, but they were driven out before they could do any damage.

The Armies

Japanese victories on land have been only less brilliant than those of the Japanese navy. Lines are drawing ever more closely about Port Arthur. After the battles of Kinchow and Nanshan, Oku divided his army, the larger section continuing to press southward toward Port Arthur and the other countermarching northward to coöperate with General Nozu of the Takushan force and oppose the Russian relief expedition under General Stakelberg. The greatest battle since that of the Yalu occurred June 14-15, at Vafangow and Telissu, on the railroad sixty miles north of Kinchow and Nanshan hill. Stakelberg was totally defeated by wonderful Japanese artillery practice and clever flanking movements. It is estimated that 10,000 Russians were killed, wounded and captured. The Japanese acknowledge only 1,000 killed. Oku and Nozu then marched northward along both sides of the Port Arthur railroad toward Haicheng. Simultaneously, General Kuroki advanced from his bases at Siuyen and Fengwangcheng and proceeded over three roads toward

THE JAPANESE DESTROYING THE RAILWAY AND ATTACKING THE RUSSIAN VANGUARD

From a Japanese Cartoon

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Japanese Boys Being Trained for Soldiers

Japanese Girls Being Trained for Nurses

HOW THE JAPANESE ARE PREPARING THE RISING GENERATION FOR WAR

Kaichou, Tatchekiao and Haicheng, with the intention of striking the Russians on their left and rear. On each of these roads he captured a pass after a hard battle. Motien Pass was attacked on June 26 and occupied before the close of the following day. No details of this fight are known. Ta Pass was carried on June 27 by a simultaneous frontal and flank assault, supported by a heavy artillery fire. Here the Russians are said to have lost 200 killed. The Japanese losses are unknown. The fight at Fenshui Pass, June 26-27, was the severest of the three. Here the Japanese reported the loss of 1,170 killed and wounded. This part of Kuroki's force was assisted by a portion of Nozu's Takushan division. The Russian position was strong and well fortified, but here, as in all the other land battles the Japanese carried the field by dint of rapid and accurate cannonading. The Russians were also attacked in flank and rear and badly cut up, though their casualties are not stated, beyond six officers and eighty-two men captured, and 100 men left dead on the field, as they retreated northwestward. Kuroki, Nozu and Oku continued to advance in four converging columns toward Haicheng. Meanwhile, Oku's southern section gained a success on June 26-27, which were fortunate days for the Japanese arms in five places. On June 26 the southern section of Oku's army drove the Russians from "Heights 120 and 131" to the Lounvantian Heights, only eight and two-thirds miles east of Port Arthur. Seven Russian officers and 200 men were killed in the battle, and fifty Japanese were killed by the explosion of a mine which had been placed for them. On June 27, the Nipponese drove the Russians from the Lounvantian Heights. There the Japanese planted siege guns and began to throw shells into Port Arthur, which is now exposed to bombardment from both land and sea. It is not known how strong this Japanese force is. It is evidently strong enough to confine the Russian garrison in Port Arthur; it is probably too weak to carry the stronghold, which is said to be powerfully fortified and manned. It seems to be the Japanese intention to cripple Kuropatkin before strengthening the besieging army at Port Arthur. Torrential rains have set in, rendering it hard for the Japanese to haul provisions through the mud, whereas Kuropatkin can transport provisions by railroad. Fighting has begun within twenty-five miles of Liaoyang, and on July 4 the Russians were repulsed in an attempt to retake Motien Pass.

TYPES OF THE ARMY IN YOKOHAMA

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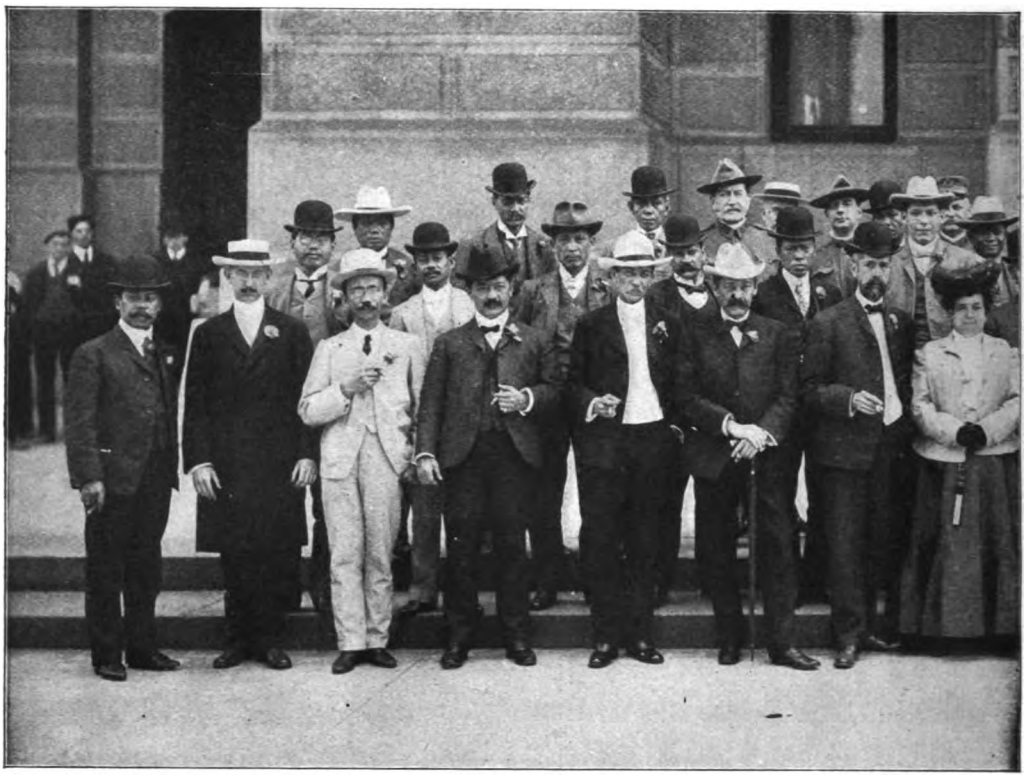

MEMBERS OF THE PHILIPPINE

Finland and Russia

The assassination of Count Bobrikoff, Governor-General of Finland, has thus far had no apparent effect, for better or for worse, on the fate of that unhappy country. The patriotic student, Eugen Schaumann, freed his country of a tyrant, but not of the powerful system represented by that tyrant. Minister of the Interior von Plehve has decided not to hold the Finnish people responsible for the act of one young man and has recommended that there be no increase of harshness in the administration of the duchy. However, Bobrikoff's successor is said to be a ruler of the same type and the method of Russification is not to be changed. Bobrikoff has been described as "a combination of a French farmer of taxes in pre-Revolutionary days and the chief of a band of modern Turkish brigands." The Russian bureaucracy has no apparent understanding of the significance of the Finnish agitation. The Finns are an enlightened, liberty-loving people, with ancient laws and traditions to which they naturally cling. The relentless crushing of the liberties of such a people by a military despotism supported by the ignorant loyalty of the Russian masses is an anachronism. It is the worse for both Russia and Finland because ignorant, incompetent Russian executives have replaced the highly trained, efficient and patriotic Finnish officials, with the result that prosperity is destroyed and the duchy contains millions of poverty-stricken, discontented people of all classes.

A Would-Be Royal Peacemaker

King Edward is still maintaining his reputation as an international peacemaker. His latest royal visit in the interest of European harmony has been to the Emperor of Germany on the occasion of the yacht races held at Kiel. While it is impossible to learn the real result of such royal visits, it is pretty generally believed that the possibilities of mediation between Russia and Japan on the part of Germany were discussed. In many par-

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COMMISSION IN PHILADELPHIA

ticulars Germany is well situated to play the part of mediator, but neither Russia nor Japan is quite ready for peace. It is probable that in the event of a decisive battle an opening might occur where some great power, very probably the United States, might offer its kind offices to bring about a reconciliation between the belligerents. In the mean time diplomats are pretty generally agreed that the visits of King Edward have served to cement English friendship with Italy, France and Germany.

The Turks and the Powers

With the recurrence of summer, Turkish affairs are again beginning to come into the foreground. Although the Macedonian Committee seems unwilling to take up the work of revolt, the Armenian is again made to suffer the penalty of birth and religion. In the vicinity of Bitlis and Sassoon there have been massacres worthy of former days, but the world has become so accustomed to the annual massacre of Armenians as to be but little moved. France alone seems concerned. Under the initiative of M. Delcasse, France, Italy and Great Britain have joined in a protest to the Sultan and have submitted plans for reform in Asia Minor. It is hard to believe that these reforms will improve matters greatly. The Sultan promises easily and fulfils with difficulty. Although the United States has not joined in the demand for reform, it is by no means indifferent to the claims of its own citizens upon the Porte, and has sent a fleet into Turkish waters to give emphasis to diplomatic demands. It is certainly time that our government made itself more distinctly felt in eastern affairs.

The International Woman's Congress

The International Woman's Congress met in Berlin June 13-18 in connection with the meeting of the International Council of Women. The congress was divided into four sections, and altogether

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THE GATE OF LIAOYANG, CHINA

something like two hundred addresses were given during the week. Among the speakers from America were Miss Thomas, president of Bryn Mawr; Mrs. Wells, of Salt Lake City, and Mrs. May Wright Sewall, of Indianapolis. Miss Susan B. Anthony was made honorary president and attracted a great deal of attention from the women of all nationalities. The practical results of such a congress are to be seen in the general progress of the German women. The attention given the congress by Germans of prominence was a tribute to the new order that already begins to appear in the Empire. Such progress further indicates by contrast how vastly superior is the position of women in America to that of women in most European countries.

Another Shipwreck Horror

Only thirteen days after the General Slocum tragedy another disaster, almost equally terrible, occurred off the Scottish coast. The Scandinavian-American liner Norge, bound from Copenhagen for New York, struck a sunken rock near Rockhall Reef, 290 miles off the west coast of Scotland, after losing her course in a fog. Of 694 passengers—Scandinavian emigrants and Scandinavian-Americans returning from a visit to Europe—and a crew of seventy-one men, only 145 were rescued. It is believed that the 620 persons unaccounted for were drowned. Captain Gundell relates that he and Chief Officer Carpenter were standing on the bridge when they felt the ship strike. Orders were given to man the pumps and lifeboats and to have the passengers put on life-belts. There was a rough sea on and two of the lifeboats were dashed to pieces against the side of the vessel, all on board of each boat being killed. Seven boats and a few life-rafts were got safely away before the Norge went down by the bow only twenty minutes after striking. Three boats were so overcrowded that they soon sank in the waves. The survivors that have been brought to Stornoway, Scotland, were rescued by the German steamer Energie, the British steamer Cervona and the Grimsley trawler Sylvia.

The National Conventions

The Conventions and the Public

The attitude of the American people toward the various national conventions which have been held during the past month has been one of rather indifferent interest. The nomination of President Roosevelt at Chicago was so thoroughly assured as to preclude all questions of conflict, and the Prohibition meeting at Indianapolis was of general interest largely because of the possibility that General Miles might become the party's candidate. The Democratic convention on the whole was the object of more curiosity. The astonishing campaign of Mr. Hearst for candidacy, as well as the silence of Judge Parker upon national issues, gave a certain dramatic character to the meeting altogether lacking at the Republican convention. The uncertainty also concerning the Vice-President aroused enthusiasm in different portions of the country for their favorite sons. At Chicago even the Hitt boom collapsed before it could reach the floor of the hall. The platforms of the two chief parties, of course, differ considerably, but as has been pointed out elsewhere in the present issue of THE WORLD TO-DAY, the difference between the actual purposes of the reorganized Democracy and the Republican party are not fundamental. Whichever wins in November, there is not likely to be any radical legislation or any change in international policies. At the same time its platform shows that the Democratic party is not independent of free silver issues. The refusal to insert a gold standard plank was distinctly a triumph for Mr. Bryan.

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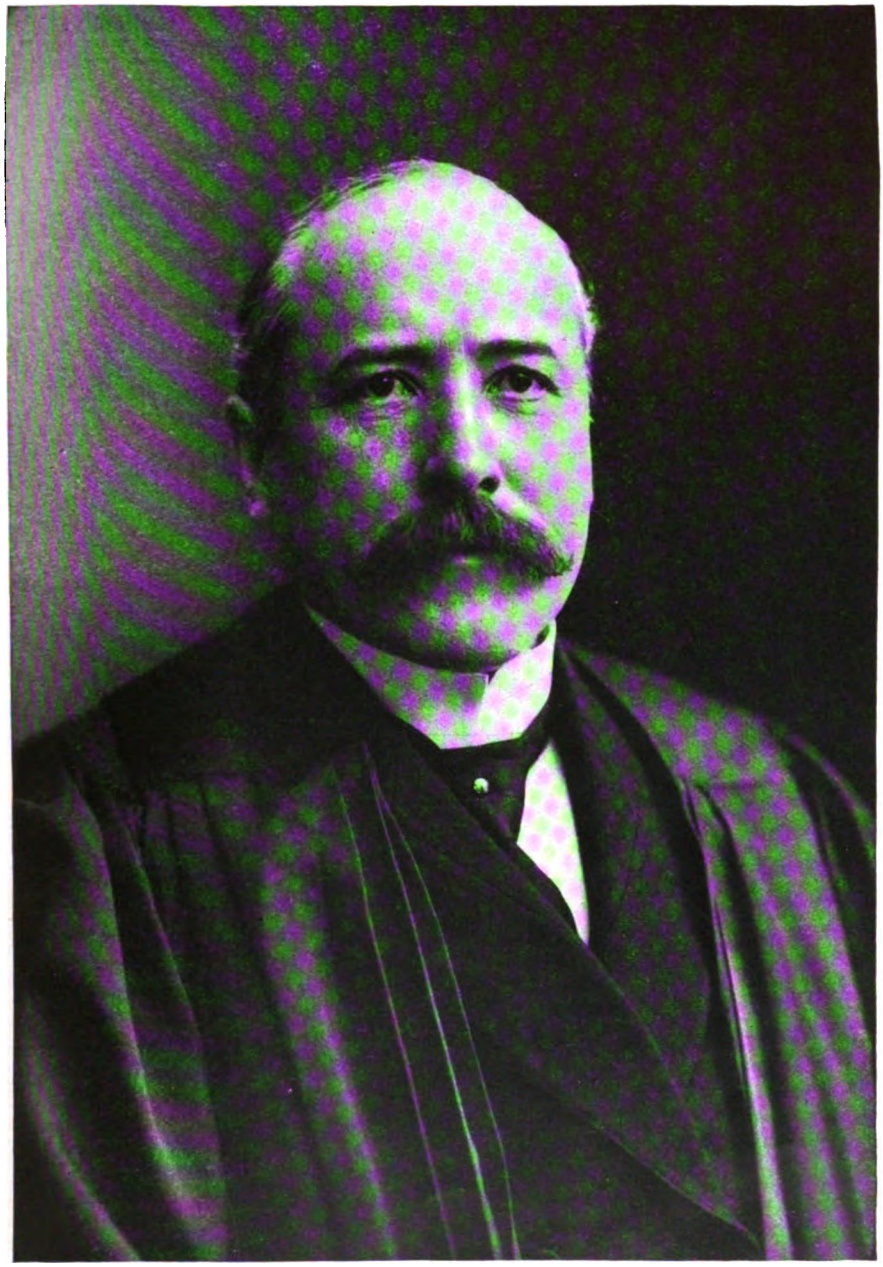

ALTON B. PARKER, DEMOCRATIC NOMINEE FOR PRESIDENT

Born May 14, 1852
Graduated from Albany Law School, 1872
Elected Clerk of Board of Supervisors of Ulster County, N. Y., 1872
Elected Surrogate of Ulster County, N. Y., 1877
Appointed Judge of New York Supreme Court, 1885
Appointed Judge of the Second Division of the Court of Appeals, 1889
Appointed Judge of the First Division of the Appellate Court, 1893
Elected Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, 1898

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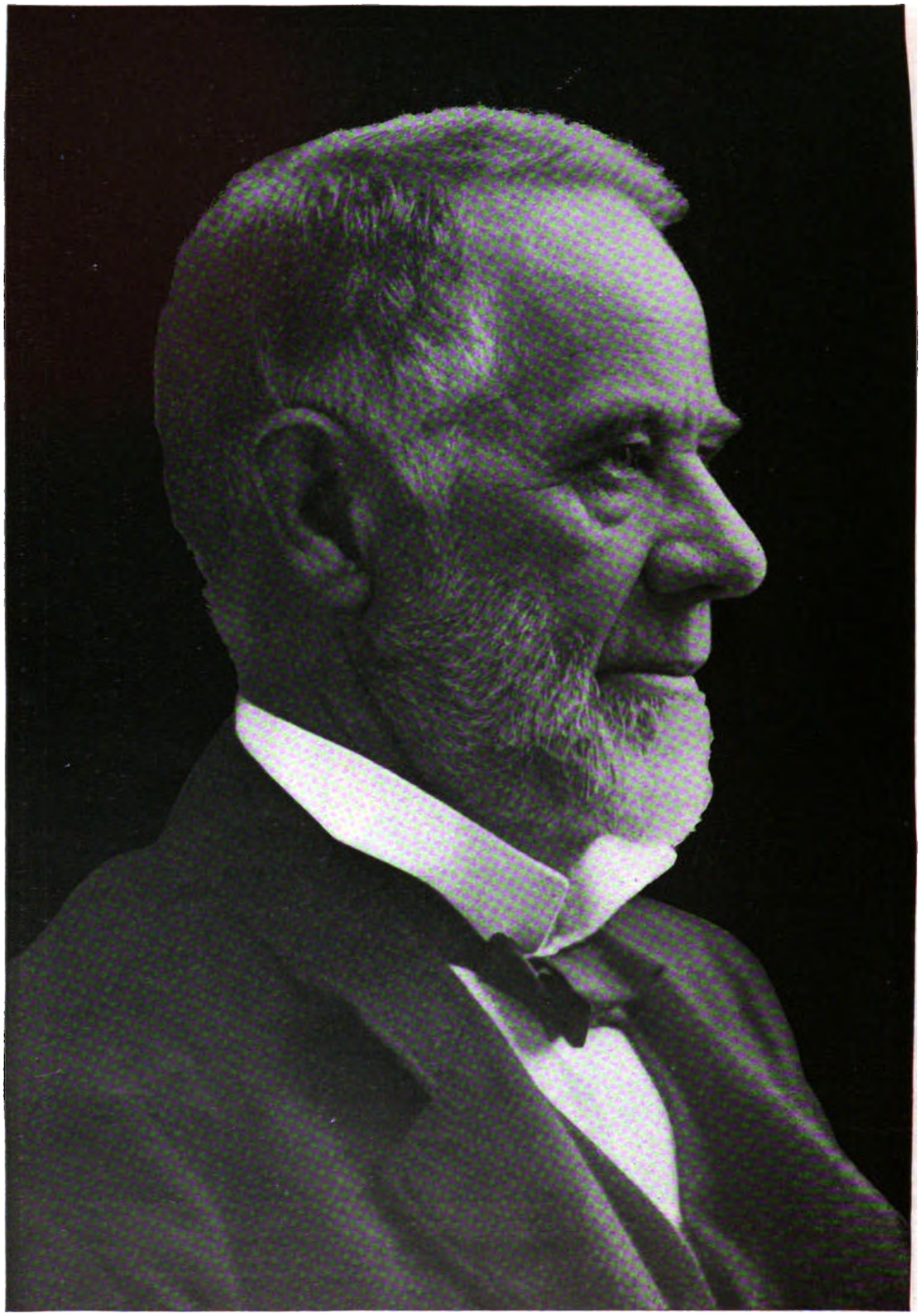

HENRY GASSAWAY DAVIS
The Democratic Nominee for Vice-President

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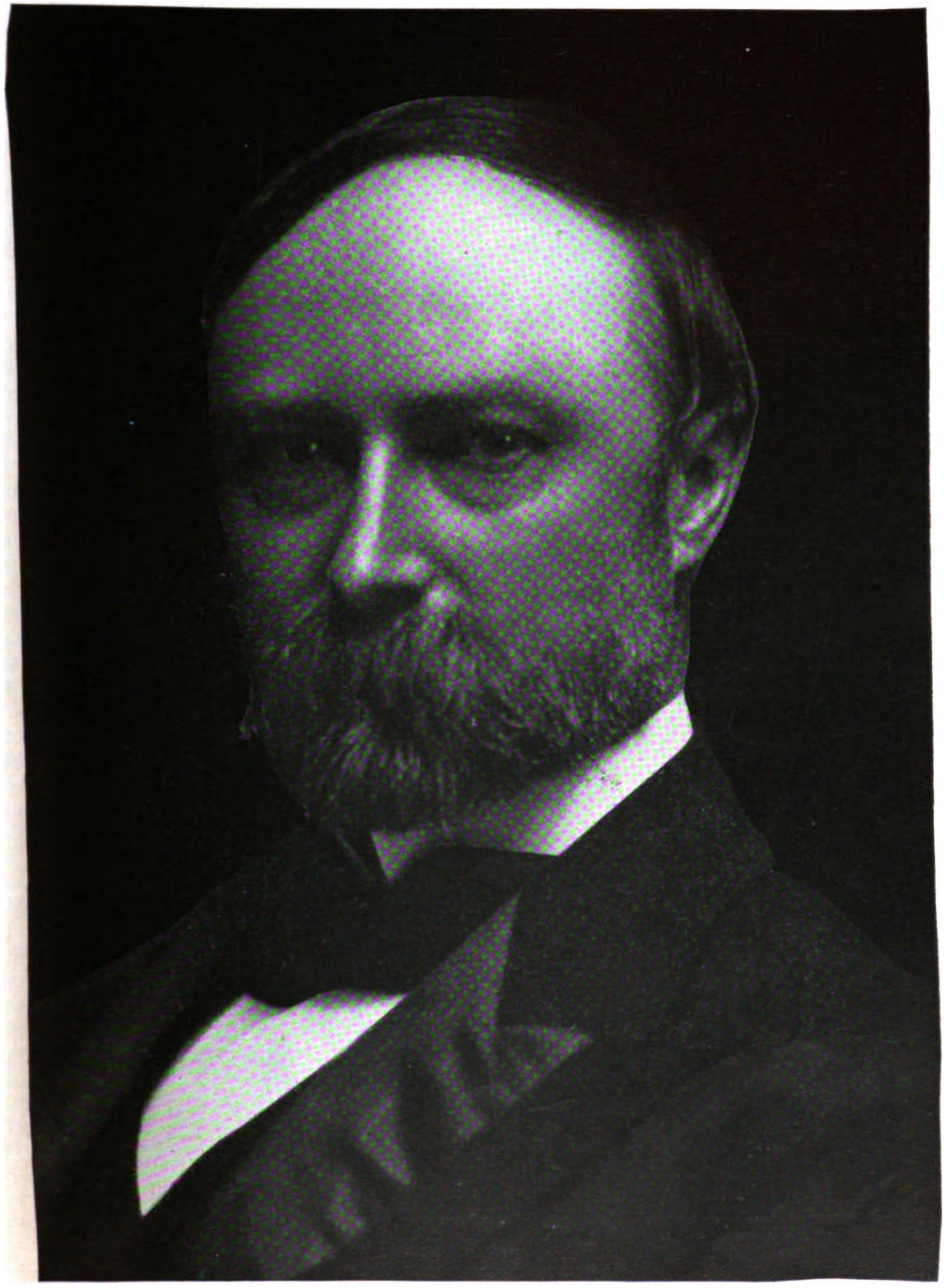

CHARLES W. FAIRBANKS
The Republican Nominee for Vice-President

Reprinted from "The World To-Day" for May, 1904

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SILAS C. SWALLOW, D.D.
The Prohibition Candidate for the Presidency

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The Democratic Convention

Alton Brooks Parker, of New York, and Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia, were the nominees of the Democratic national convention which met at St. Louis at noon on Wednesday, July 6, and adjourned at 1:30 o'clock on the morning of Sunday, July 10. But one ballot was taken in each case. The convention showed conclusively that the nomination for the presidency of the United States is not for sale. Judge Parker, for the past seven years the chief judge of the Court of Appeals of New York, had been considered one of the most probable candidates for the presidential nomination ever since the Democratic convention of his state, held in Albany on April 18, instructed the delegates it elected to vote for him as a unit. Mr. Davis, on the other hand, was not even considered in connection with the second place on the ticket until a few hours before the convention established a precedent of doubtful propriety by nominating him on a Sunday. He is the father-in-law of Senator Elkins and a cousin of Senator Gorman, and is wealthy. Judge Parker's nomination was made a few minutes before 6 o'clock on the morning of July 9, after a session which had commenced at 8 o'clock the previous night and which from many standpoints was without parallel in the history of American politics. It was turbulent at all times. On many occasions it presented features which were intensely dramatic and one of its most prominent incidents was the pathetic spectacle of William Jennings Bryan, once the idol of six million Democrats, being overwhelmingly beaten in his efforts to prevent the nomination of the New York jurist. Thirteen candidates were voted for, and on the original call of the first ballot Judge Parker received 658 votes as against 342 for all the others. Under the two-thirds rule, 666⅔ were needed to nominate. Before the clerk announced the result Delaware, Idaho, Washington and others transferred their strength to Parker, thus swelling his total to considerably more than that figure. Then the nomination was made unanimous on motion of Governor Dockery, of Missouri. The votes originally cast for other candidates, the names of most of whom had been formally presented to the convention, were as follows: Hearst, 178; Cockrell, 42; Gray, 8; Gorman, 2; Pattison, 1; Miles, 3; Olney, 38; Towne, 2; McClellan, 3; Wall, 27; John Sharp Williams, 8; Coler, 1. A significant feature of the convention was the number of Southerners who were prominent. John Sharp Williams was temporary chairman and Champ Clark, of Missouri, the permanent presiding officer. Clark surrendered the gavel to Senator Bailey, of Texas, when he nominated Senator Cockrell. Martin W. Littleton, who nominated Judge Parker, is a native of Tennessee and a former resident of Texas. Carmack, Vardaman, Tillman and others were much in evidence. The elimination of a gold plank from the platform, in connection with Judge Parker's telegram, is taken as an indication that David B. Hill is no longer entitled to be regarded as a factor in the situation. The convention declined to give representation to the Philippines, basing its action on the decision of the Supreme Court that the islands are not a part of the United States, and on the Democratic tenet that the islands should be governed by the Filipinos.

WILLIAM RANDOLPH HEARST
One of the Unsuccessful Candidates

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The Nominees

As over against President Roosevelt with his career as administrator, the Democratic convention nominated a distinguished jurist with no record as an administrator. Further, beyond his telegram above referred to, he has taken no position on any public matter, and stands simply as a man of irreproachable character and high judicial reputation, with no political past. His policy will doubtless be indicated in his speech of acceptance. His candidacy is likely to center the campaign upon New York. As a candidate for Vice-President, the aged Henry G. Davis, former Senator from West Virginia, can not be said to be a source of either strength or weakness to the ticket beyond his wealth. With platforms so nearly alike as those adopted at Chicago and St. Louis, the issue becomes really the personality of President Roosevelt. Just at present "business circles" are somewhat affected by Rooseveltphobia. It will be interesting to see how effective this will prove as a campaign issue.

The Platform

The struggle over the platform was bitter both within the subcommittee and during an all-night session of the convention. It also showed the unexpected strength of the Bryan wing of the party. The eastern reorganizers, with Mr. Hill at their head, were determined to insert a paragraph pledging the party to the gold standard. On the other side, Mr. Bryan was as determined that no such plank should be adopted and was eager to insert the income tax plank of the Nebraska state platform. After a heated discussion the committee refused to insert either of the two planks. In its final shape the platform is significant in that it assumes that the money question is removed from the field of political contention. It further demands a "wise, conservative and businesslike revision and a gradual reduction of the tariff by the friends of the masses," and "a reduction of tariff taxation upon trust-produced articles to a point where foreign competition may enter the American market whenever trusts and combines seeking monopoly raise their prices to the American consumer above a reasonable and just profit"; an enforcement of the anti-trust laws; a liberal trade treaty with Canada; the election of United States Senators by direct vote of the people; the according of the same treatment toward the Filipinos as was accorded the Cubans, namely, giving independence "as soon as it can be done wisely and safely for the Filipinos themselves." In addition to these provisions it attacks certain acts of the Republican party, and favors the reclaiming of bad lands and the admission of all the territories as states. Taken altogether the platform is conservative in its positive statements, and does not differ remarkably from that adopted previously by the Republicans, the chief matter of difference, from the point of view of business, being its noncommittal position on the money question. In this Mr. Hill was undoubtedly defeated by Mr. Bryan.

A "Declaratory Statement" for the Platform

Just as the convention was in the midst of naming the Vice-President a telegram was read from Judge Parker as follows:

> I regard the gold standard as firmly and irrevocably established and shall act accordingly if the action of the convention of to-day shall be ratified by the people.
>
> As the platform is silent on the subject my views should be made known to the convention and if they are proved to be unsatisfactory to the majority, I request you to decline the nomination for me at once, so that another may be nominated before adjournment.

The convention by an overwhelming vote replied as follows:

> The platform adopted by this convention is silent on the question of the monetary standard because it is not regarded by us as a possible issue in this campaign, and only campaign issues were mentioned in the platform. Therefore there is nothing in the views expressed by you in the telegram just received which would preclude a man entertaining them from accepting a nomination on said platform.

Just what effect this attitude of Judge Parker will have it is too early to see plainly. At first it will undoubtedly reassure the business interests which unquestionably were disturbed by the evidence of Bryan's strength. A second effect, however, is likely to be one of perplexity. The position of the presidential nominee is certainly not a clear representation of the party as a whole and may yet make the platform which was to bring back party harmony the source of irritation and distrust.

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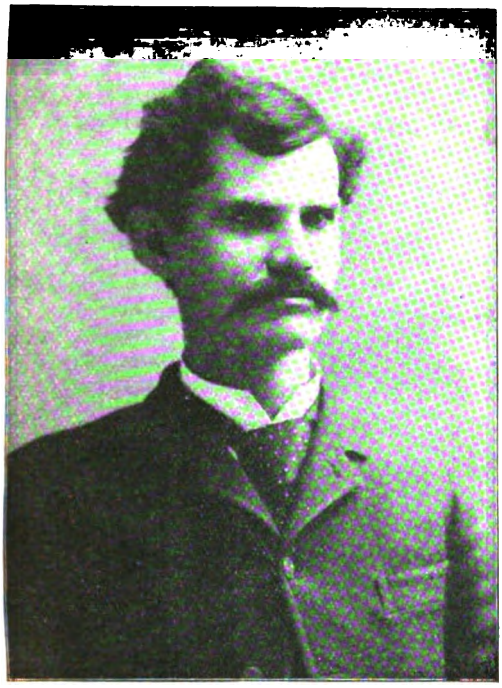
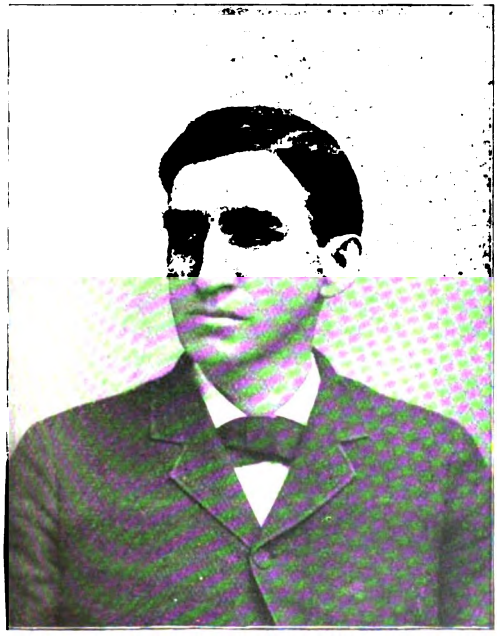
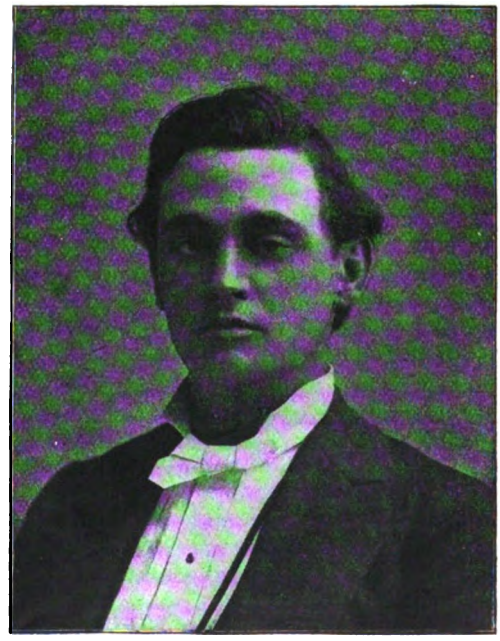


JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS
Mississippi

EDWARD C. WALL
Wisconsin



JAMES R. WILLIAMS
Illinois



JOSEPH W. BAILEY
Texas

A GROUP OF FAVORITE SONS

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The Republican Convention and President Roosevelt

The thirteenth Republican National Convention, held at Chicago June 21-23, unlike its Democratic rival, was the least emotional and the most harmonious of all the gatherings of its kind. It nominated a man for President who had already attained that position through the Vice-Presidential succession, a thing that had never been done before; and for the first time during the half-century the party has been in existence the candidate came from New York. It was largely a meeting held to ratify the popular nomination of Theodore Roosevelt and to effect prearranged plans. Barring the settlement of the Wisconsin, Delaware and Louisiana contests and the arrangement of a few minor details of the platform, everything had been agreed on before Vice-Chairman Payne of the national committee called the delegates to order. And it was President Roosevelt himself who did the planning and directed the work of the convention. No greater tribute has ever been paid a man in public life than that thus paid the President. Four years ago he was nominated for the Vice-Presidency, with the more or less clear intention of shelving him. Three years ago politicians were still uneasy about him. At Chicago they unanimously united upon him. As Senator Beveridge said, the people had selected him. The only roll call of the three days' session, with the exception of the one on which the President was unanimously nominated to succeed himself, and that, of course was a mere matter of form, was to decide the measure of representation to be accorded Hawaii. The nomination of Senator Fairbanks for Vice-President was unanimously made by acclamation.

Cortelyou, the Successor of Hanna

It would have been too much to expect absolute unanimity in the handling of the details which occupied attention before the convention and, furthermore, it would not have been politics. Yet no hint of anything even approaching real dissension was allowed to appear on the floor of the convention. And, for that matter, none of the differences of opinion in evidence before the meeting were really important, with the exception of the bitterly fought Wisconsin contest. There was some objection to the placing of George Bruce Cortelyou at the head of the National Committee, but the ability of Republicans to pass over details and work as a harmonious whole for party success was shown by the fact that at the proper time Mr. Cortelyou was unanimously elected as successor to the late Senator Hanna, and that he entered upon the discharge of his new duties with the best wishes and the coöperation of practically every member of the committee. Here again was Mr. Roosevelt's strength and popularity attested, for it was he who originally decided that his then newest cabinet member was the right man for the chairmanship, and he it was who dissipated all objection to the plan without causing any apparent friction or lasting bad feeling. In this, as in several other matters, he signally triumphed over men who had been intimately connected with the later political operations of Marcus A. Hanna, and who represented what might be termed the old régime in Republican affairs.

The Vice-Presidency

The selection of Charles Warren Fairbanks, senior Senator from Indiana, for the second place on the ticket, was practically certain when the convention opened. The action of the Illinois Republicans in endorsing Representative Robert Roberts Hitt for the Vice-Presidency made that gentleman a candidate of no mean strength, but there was a lack of sufficient support from other states, and some time before Senator Cullom formally withdrew the name of his colleague in the lower house, it was plain that Mr. Hitt could not be nominated. The Illinois delegates made a fight for their man before the convention met, however, and yielded only after New York and other large states announced a preference for the Senator from Indiana. Senator Fairbanks was at no time a declared candidate for the place. He steadfastly declined to say whether he wanted it or would take it. His friends were somewhat apprehensive that this non-committal course would injure his chances, but since the nomination came to him as it did there can be no doubt that his political strength has been greatly augmented. The ticket in the Middle West will be especially strengthened.

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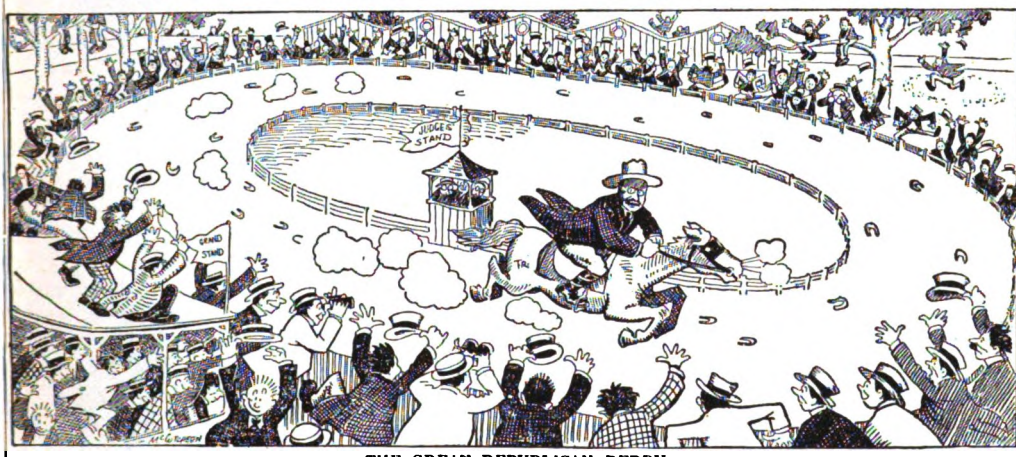
"THE CHEERING LASTED TWENTY MINUTES"
Chicago *Examiner*—Hearst Democrat

"IT WASN'T MUCH OF A SHOWER, BUT HOW ABOUT THE NEXT?"
Chicago *Daily News*—Independent



THE GREAT REPUBLICAN DERBY
Chicago *Tribune*—Republican

THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION AS SEEN BY THE CARTOONISTS

Republican National Platform

It will be difficult for many good Republicans to read the platform adopted at the Chicago convention without feeling with the learned Dr. Pangloss that this is the best of all possible worlds. Rose color in a political platform appeals to the satisfied voter. Its lavish use in this instance tells of a contented nation. Therefore are the Republican party and its candidate fortunate, since they stand for the continuance of existing policies. With admirable foresight fully a year ago the efforts of the party managers were directed to keeping it moving forward on an even keel and preventing it from trafficking in new waters. Rounding out the President's Cuban policy and bringing to a prosperous conclusion the Panama Canal matter were the two great achievements which the administration and Congress placed to the party's credit thereafter, thus taking them from the catalogue of unfinished business. So, when the party met in convention this summer it stood confidently upon its record. It reaffirmed its adherence to its established policies and advised the country to try no others unless they were recommended by the Republican organiza-

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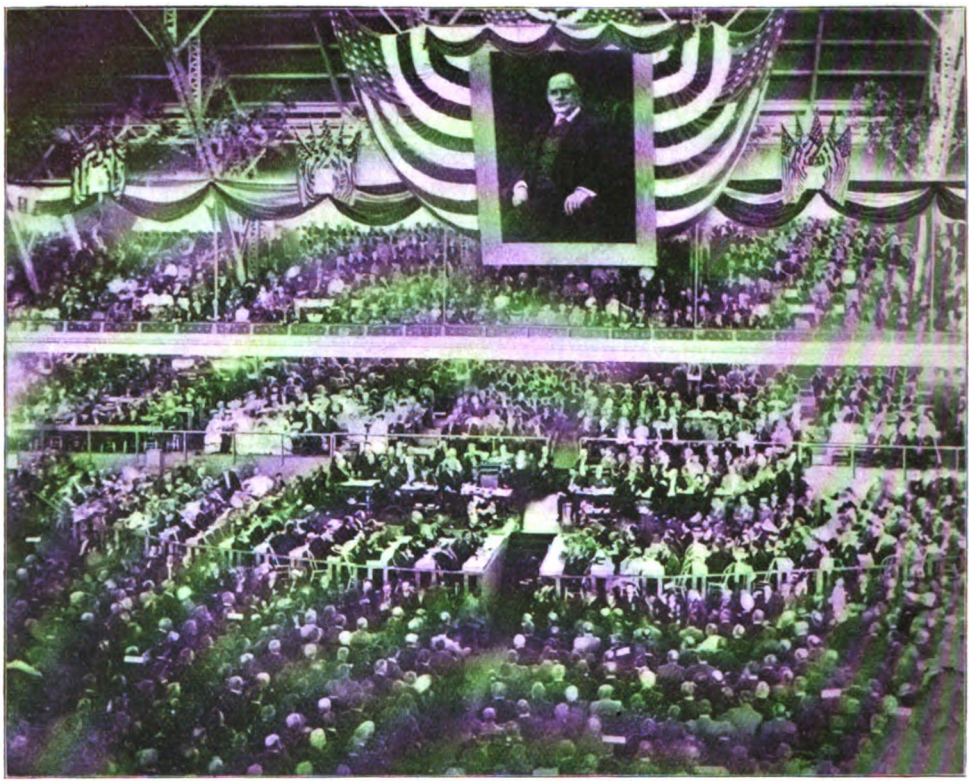
tion. An inquiry into the best method of building up the merchant marine and an investigation as to the reported disfranchising of voters in some parts of the United States were approved. Policies already in force were found to cover all other questions that the framers of the platform deemed worthy of mention. Distinctly that document is the contented man's expression of his views on national government. Fortunate, therefore, are the party and the candidate in having good prospects of winning on the strength of present conditions and past achievements. They do not have to fulfil promises if they win, for they make none.



THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION IN SESSION AT CHICAGO

Foreign Trade and the Tariff

Much scrutiny has been bestowed on that part of the platform which relates to the tariff and foreign trade. Does it advocate revision of the Dingley schedules? Does it foreshadow the adoption of a trade reciprocity policy? We think not. On the contrary, it says with unmistakable distinctness that changes in these directions will be made only under exceptional conditions which, even if they shall arise, will be carefully subordinated to the principle of protection. "Rates of duty," says the platform, "should be readjusted only when conditions have so changed that the public interest demands their alteration." There is an old story about a man who was reported to have been hanged. He went to the editor of the newspaper which had printed the report and complained that it was false. "We never make mistakes," said the editor. "However, we will say that the rope slipped." So the Republican party will not admit that there are any mistakes in the Dingley schedules. It will not admit that those schedules need any sort of change. If in the future, however, they should require readjustment the Republican party should be entrusted with the task. The platform could have said no less without proclaiming the existing tariff immutable, immortal, infinite. In

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THE PRESIDENT'S OFFICE AT OYSTER BAY

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S HOME AT OYSTER BAY

declaring for all practicable methods of extending the nation's foreign trade the platform includes among those methods commercial reciprocity "whenever reciprocal arrangements can be effected consistent with the principles of protection and without injury to American agriculture, American labor or any American industry." The doctrine of the greatest good to the greatest number has no place in this declaration. Yet many advocates of trade reciprocity regard it hopefully. Perhaps this is natural, in view of the general optimism which the platform is intended to arouse. One can scarcely explain such hopefulness on any other ground. That wise trade reciprocity would be of enormous value to the people as a whole is sufficiently clear to require no argument. Many important interests demand it. But the kind of reciprocity advocated in the Republican platform seemingly would require unanimous consent on the part of the public to put it in force in any instance. However, the platform in both these matters seems to agree very well with the sentiment dominating the party. Widely extended prosperity has inspired a demand for extreme conservatism in tariff matters and the Republican national platform meets that demand.

The Prohibition Party's Nominations

At their convention held in Indianapolis June 28-30 the national Prohibition party nominated Rev. Silas C. Swallow, D.D., of Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, for the Presidency, and Rev. George W. Carroll, of Beaumont, Texas, for Vice-President. There was a strong likelihood that the first place on the ticket would go to General Nelson A. Miles, but some of the delegates were inclined to doubt whether the general was actually a Prohibitionist, and he himself withdrew his name. Dr. Swallow has been known for a number of years as the superintendent of the Methodist book rooms at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, and as the one who exposed certain of the doings of the Pennsylvania politicians in 1897. He has been a strong candidate for state treasurer and governor in Pennsylvania, and is probably the strongest candidate at the disposal of his party. The platform adopted by the convention centers about the prohibition of the manufacture and sale of liquor, and charges both the Democratic and Republican parties with lack of statesmanship because of their refusal to recognize this as a paramount issue before the American people. The convention refused to adopt the minority report of the Platform Committee, which advocated several rather radical economic measures, and contented itself with declaring for a number of general reforms including international arbitration, reform in divorce laws and the election of United States Senators by the vote of the people. The Prohibition party has stood steadily for its ideals for a generation. It has not won any large place in national politics as yet, but it has had large indirect influence upon public opinion. It is probably true that the success of the recent anti-saloon campaigns in different states has been in no small degree due to the sentiment to which the party has given rise.

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The Nation

Changes in the Cabinet

Mr. Knox, President Roosevelt's able Attorney-General, having been appointed United States Senator by Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, to succeed the late Senator Quay, retired from the cabinet at the beginning of last month. Mr. Cortelyou, Secretary of Commerce and Labor, left at the same time to take up his duties as campaign manager for the Republicans, a position bestowed upon him at the wish of President Roosevelt. It is believed that after the November election he will succeed Mr. Payne as Postmaster-General, the ill-health of that official being likely to cause his retirement. Mr. Moody, on July 1, left the office of Secretary of the Navy to become Attorney-General. He was succeeded in the Navy Department by Paul Morton, of Chicago, until lately vice-president of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway. Victor H. Metcalf, of California, at the same time resigned his seat in Congress to enter the cabinet as Secretary of Commerce and Labor. The two new members of the President's advisory body are able men, in the prime of life and competent to perform valuable work for the country. The retirement of Mr. Knox from the position in which he has won distinction through his prosecution of the Northern Securities merger case and other dealings with great combinations, has called forth much comment. His connection with this prosecution, however, was due to the policy of President Roosevelt, not to any peculiar preference, experience or knack possessed by himself. One may suppose that Mr. Moody, who is a lawyer of high standing, is quite as competent as was Mr. Knox to carry out the President's policy in regard to harmful trusts. The grotesque suggestion that corporation influence brought about the translation of Mr. Knox to the Senate so as to put a period to his activities in the cabinet takes too little account of the influence which Mr. Roosevelt possesses with his own administration. It is probable, however, that there will be no new prosecutions of industrial combinations during the presidential campaign, since the efforts put forward of late to convince the public

THE CHURCH AT OYSTER BAY ATTENDED BY PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT

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that the President is not the "foe of capital" are not likely to be neutralized without exceptional reasons for such action. The mildness of the expressions in the national platform respecting trusts indicates this.

Railroad Influences in Politics

In a remarkable attack on the Committee on Credentials of the Republican National Convention for its rejection of the contesting delegates from Wisconsin, Lieutenant-Governor Davidson, of that state, said: "The time is not far distant when the issues advocated by Governor La Follette in Wisconsin will be the issues of the party in the nation." During his stormy rule as state governor, La Follette has sought to overcome the political influence wielded by representatives of the railways and to regulate the operations of those corporations in the interests of the people. His popularity with the voters has rested largely upon this issue. His chief opponents in the Republican party are denounced by him as tools of the railways and of local public service corporations. No one doubts that railway influence has been brought to bear against La Follette. As to the righteousness of the reforms which he has advocated and the propriety of his methods of carrying on political warfare there is room for widely divergent opinions. Yet the principle underlying the La Follette agitation is an important principle. It is that railways should be ruled by the people of the state instead of ruling the state through their able and sometimes distinguished representatives. The tremendous influence of a railway which traverses a state from end to end, which earns and pays out vast sums within the state's borders, which retains its best or shrewdest lawyers at large salaries, which sends men of its choosing to Congress and the Legislature, is easily apparent. There is credible testimony to show that Senator Burton, of Kansas, recently convicted of a grave offense, was chosen through railway influence at Topeka, though his reputation there did not commend him to good citizens. Charges that high freight rates in Illinois are maintained for political reasons have been made of late by responsible shippers. It would not be difficult, in short, to give numerous instances showing that railway influence profoundly affects state and national affairs. Is that influence exercised in ways that are a menace to popular government? If so, what is the remedy? These questions call for careful study by publicists and patriots.

Fiscal Year Figures

With the close of the fiscal year on June 30 the United States Treasury showed for the twelve months a deficit of $41,000,000. The extraordinary expense due to the purchase of the Panama Canal rights, costing $50,000,000, and the loan of $4,000,000 to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, had prevented the Treasury from showing a surplus for the year of $13,000,000. The loss in customs duties for the year as compared with the preceding year was $21,832,235. About a third of this loss is held to be due to the reciprocity arrangements with Cuba, which were in operation during the last half of the fiscal year. Internal revenue receipts showed an increase of about $3,000,000, which is held to indicate that there has been no serious decrease in the nation's prosperity. The ordinary expenses of the government were somewhat larger than those of the previous year, the naval expenditures showing the heaviest increase, amounting to $20,000,000. Expenditures of the War Department were less by $3,000,000 than in 1903. Pensions caused an expenditure of $4,000,000 more than in the preceding year. Now that the new ruling of the pension commissioner has largely increased the prospective payments of pension money for age, this added expense must be large during the coming fiscal year. With a lowering of customs receipts foreshadowed by trade conditions, it will be no surprise if the deficit of the year ending June 30, 1905, shall prove larger than that of the past year, in spite of the exceptional expenses which characterize the latter. As the surplus in the Treasury is enormous and the gold reserve is ample, no uneasiness exists as to the outlook. However, the present relation between the nation's receipts and expenditures must have a bearing on the tariff reform and reciprocity agitation forming a part of the Democratic campaign. The argument that a big nation must be run in a big way

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and that therefore it can not afford to cut down its revenues any further is likely to take its place among those urged in favor of the Republican position on the tariff.

Laws and Abuse of Power

An interesting contention was touched upon in a recent decision by the United States Supreme Court. The law of Congress placing a tax of 10 cents a pound on oleomargarine colored in imitation of butter had been attacked on various grounds, one of them being that it was oppressive. The court held that to give weight to this argument would be to pass judgment as to whether or not the law was ethically wrong. The court pointed out that it could not be the censor of the policies of government. It is, of course, well established that there can be no interference by courts with a bad law, provided it is constitutional. Within its sphere a legislative body is supreme. Unwise laws, wicked laws, if not unconstitutional, lie strictly between the lawmakers and the people who placed them in office. The feeling is too common that if unfit men go to Congress or to a State Legislature and there enact bad laws some other part of the government will come to the people's rescue and throttle those enactments. Anything that dulls the edge of the people's realization that there is nothing automatic about popular government is full of harm. Therefore the meaning of the Supreme Court's declaration that it has nothing to do with questions of right and wrong raised in regard to existing laws should be impressed upon the public. The laws that come out of any lawmaking body reflect the morals of that body. A bad, an ignorant or a foolish man can not be a good lawmaker. The better the men, morally and intellectually, who legislate, the better the laws. The taint of the corrupt lobby lies upon many a law now upon the statute books. An important ingredient of any law is character. The voter who will not take note of this is an accessory before the fact to crimes committed against free government. The political party that presents bad candidates to the voters is certainly a sinner ripe for punishment. A bad man can not discharge well official duties of any sort.

The General Slocum Horror

Nine hundred and thirteen bodies have been recovered from the wreck of the General Slocum in New York Harbor on June 15; 128 other persons are reported missing. The total number of lives lost in the disaster is estimated at from 952 to 1,086, hundreds of them being children. The catastrophe was even more awful than that of the Iroquois Theater in Chicago. The coroner's jury has found a verdict laying criminal responsibility upon Frank A. Barnaby, president of the Knickerbocker Steamship Company; James K. Atkinson, secretary of the company; all the directors of the company, namely, Frank A. Barnaby, Charles E. Hill, James K. Atkinson, O. Delacy Evans, Robert K. Story, Floyd S. Corbin and Frank O. Dexter; Captain William H. Van Schaick, Edward Flanagan, mate, Henry Lundberg, assistant United States steamboat inspector, and Captain John Pease. The general charge is neglect of duty in not providing the steamboat with suitable fire-extinguishing equipment and an efficient and well-drilled complement of men to operate such apparatus in case of emergency, and also in not providing a sufficient number of efficient and available life-preservers and other life-saving appliances. Notwithstanding the bravery with which Captain Van Schaick stayed by the steering wheel, the verdict recommends that he be held criminally responsible for the accident, and that Inspector Lundberg be examined by federal officials. That the special commission, headed by George B. Cortelyou, which President Roosevelt has appointed to investigate the disaster, will return an honest report is insured by the presence in it of such men as General Wilson and Commodore Winslow.

National Conference of Charities and Correction.

The annual meeting of 1904 was held June 14-21, at Portland, Maine. As in all other meetings, so also here the conference served the double purpose of debating novel aspects of social experiment and of popularizing the principles already accepted by experts in the field of philanthropy. Public charity was treated with more than ordinary respect and hopefulness, the idea that the spoils system can not be uprooted by the com-

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petitive merit system being rejected. A strong and valid plea for faithful and competent administrators of public outdoor and indoor relief was heard with sympathy. The subject of employing voluntary visitors in outdoor relief, as in German municipalities, received more encouragement than has been common in the conference. The success of the municipal lodging-houses of New York and Chicago reinforced the conviction that public philanthropy may be freed from partisanship and corruption by earnest and united appeals to public sentiment. Among the more novel topics was that of the education and training of professional and volunteer agents of charity and social service, a theme made prominent by the opening address of President Brackett. Representatives of the three new schools of New York city, Harvard and the University of Chicago, held a meeting for conference and distributed their programs of courses. Attention was given to recent improvements in the education and care of sub-normal, defective and abnormal children in public schools. New emphasis was laid on preventive efforts, as city playgrounds, vacation schools and social centers in the schoolhouses of crowded quarters of cities. The Juvenile Court movement was discussed in respect to its historical origin, its progress in various countries, its extension in new territory and the increase and improvement of its probation officers. It was voted to accept the invitation of Portland, Oregon, for the meeting place in 1905. Rev. S. G. Smith, D.D., was elected president for the coming year, Mr. Alexander Johnson being chosen secretary.

Opening of Indian Reservations

The opening of the Rosebud Indian reservation to settlement in July is the first of a series of sales which will soon throw open nearly two million acres in various parts of the Northwest. These lands are to be sold for the benefit of the Indian tribes which have heretofore been quartered on them, and to which allotments have now been made. The proceeds will be held in the treasury as an endowment from which individual and tribal annuities will be paid. The Rosebud reservation is on the southern border of South Dakota just west of the Missouri river. The portion of it to be opened to homestead entry this month includes about 382,000 acres. This land is to be sold at a uniform price of $4 an acre, the order of choice to be determined by lot. Inasmuch as the value of farm land in adjoining counties is said to be from $15 to $25 an acre, and of grazing land $10 an acre, the chance to get a homestead on the reservation at $4 will attract a great crowd of settlers from all over the West. Another tract of reservation land just opened is in the Red Lake Reservation, Minnesota, 236,000 acres; and lands in the Devil's Lake Reservation, North Dakota, the Crow Reservation, Montana, and the Grande Ronde Reservation, Oregon, are shortly to be offered for sale. The Oregon lands will go to the highest bidder, the others at a fixed price on homestead entry. The government is much more careful than it used to be to guard the interests of the Indians in these transfers, and uses all practicable efforts to dispose of them to settlers rather than to speculators, though not always successfully.

The World of Sport

Recent Track Meets

The Olympic games which are being held at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis have not as yet proved of exceptional interest. The college track meet, held June 25, was participated in by the University of Chicago, Princeton, Michigan Agricultural College, University of Illinois, Colgate College and Leland Stanford, Jr., University. The meet developed into a contest between Princeton and Chicago. A few days previous at Chicago, Princeton had proved a winner in a contest in which the first places only were counted, winning from Chicago by a single point. In St. Louis where second and third places were counted Chicago won by a score of 60 to Princeton's 40. None of the records made were specially remarkable. The meet of the Western Intercollegiate Conference held at Chicago June 4 was won by Michigan, with Chicago a close second. Rice, of Chicago, has proved to be invincible in the dashes, while Rose, of Michigan, has been equally invincible with the weights and discus.

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M. THERY

Who Should Compete in Intercollegiate Contests?

The career of Rose, who entered the law school of the university direct from a California High School in January, and leaves after a more or less questionable scholastic career in June, raises again the question as to the proper class of contestants in intercollegiate games. The only safe rule will ultimately be seen to be this: No student shall be allowed to compete in intercollegiate contests who is not a candidate for an academic degree, or is a member of a graduate school, and in all cases only after a year's residence in the university which he represents. Any objection to the latter regulation in that it would bar the student from athletic contests can be met by permitting such students to compete in class and "scrub" teams. With the football season to begin in a few weeks it is much to be feared that we are to have our annual experience of scandalous charges and countercharges among representatives of colleges. We hope at no very distant day to present in the pages of THE WORLD TO-DAY certain facts concerning the scholastic records of members of different university teams during the past few years. Our readers will then be able to judge as to whether unclassified, dental, pharmaceutical, non-graduate medical and law students are too much in evidence.

International Automobile Race

The fifth great international automobile race was held June 17 near Homburg, Germany, over an eighty-five mile course which was covered four times, giving a total distance of 340 miles. These races were inaugurated by James Gordon Bennett in 1900 with a superb trophy given into the trusteeship of the Automobile Club of France. As the accidents of the Paris-Madrid race caused some formidable opposition against races on public roads elaborate preparations were made for this race. The roads were fenced in at all towns and patrolled by more than two thousand soldiers. Fortunately no accidents of any kind marred the event. The race was won for France by Théry on an eighty-horse-power Richard-Brazier machine, completing the entire course in five hours and fifty minutes with an average speed of fifty-eight miles an hour.

The Races at Poughkeepsie

The Intercollegiate Boat Race at Poughkeepsie resulted in a surprise. Hitherto Cornell has been invincible in the eight-oared race. This year the eight-oared race was won by Syracuse, with Cornell second, Pennsylvania third, and Columbia, Georgetown and Wisconsin finishing in the order named. Syracuse also won the freshman eight. Cornell saved only the four-oared race. Yet the Syracuse crew had been expected to finish last, while Wisconsin was rated as a very possible winner. The defeat of Cornell may be due in part to the illness of one of its crew, and that of Wisconsin to rough water through which its crew was forced to row, but to judge from the time apparently the best crew won.

The Races at New London

The annual boat races between Harvard and Yale at New London this year were lacking in interest. Yale clearly outclassed Harvard and would have won all three events had it not been that Fish, of the four-oared boat, broke an oar-lock when the Yale boat was leading by three

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lengths with only one-eighth of a mile to go. The Yale freshmen easily beat the Harvard crew. In the race between the two eights Harvard showed very poor form. Yale took the lead from the start and won by nearly eight lengths. At no time was the race in doubt. Interest in the race was also dampened by unsatisfactory management and bad weather.

Horse-racing and Betting

Recent happenings in the world of sport have made it more than ever clear that horse-racing is not so much a sport as a gambling business. Yet it is difficult to effect reform. The crusade against "policy" in New York and Chicago, as well as in other cities, has shown how interwoven this nefarious form of gambling is with legitimate business enterprises. Yet reform is not absolutely impossible. The success of the police of Chicago in preventing general betting at the great Derby race was thought to be due to a temporary expression of zeal, but their vigorous administration of the law during the few days following the Derby race led to the closing of Washington Park track, and the cancellation of racing dates. The Washington Park Club comprises some of the most prominent men of Chicago, and it would be absurd to charge that all its members favor the practices which the police are now attacking. At the same time the decision to close the track because of the decline of attendance due to the suppression of betting indicates that even honorable men may sometimes be indifferent to the character of an enterprise in which they are engaged.

Education

The Case of Berea College

It will be remembered that the Kentucky Legislature last winter passed a law forbidding the coeducation of the white and negro races. This law was especially directed against Berea College, where 174 of the 977 students were negroes. The constitutionality of the law will probably not be determined for years, but in the meantime the authorities of Berea are to obey it. During the coming year it will enroll no negro students, but provide for their wants as best it can in connection with other schools. There are many good institutions of higher learning for negroes on both sides of the mountains that divide the South, and there is no danger that they will lack educational opportunities. As a matter of fact they are probably better provided for than are the mountain whites to whom Berea is exceptionally helpful.

Education as an Asset

There are certain feeble jokes in common circulation about the raw helplessness of the college graduate who has just secured his sheepskin. They do not carry conviction any more. There are too many college graduates now and their volume of achievement is too great to admit of two opinions as to their exceptional equipment for the serious affairs of life. Indeed, one may say that a distinct impetus is given yearly to the activities of this nation by the addition of a large number of eager young men who, having just finished their studies, are keen to prove to themselves as well as to others that they are capable of good work in their chosen lines. Mediocrity and ignorance are fallen on evil days. Any one who doubts this assertion has only to compare present conditions in any profession or other kind of employment requiring special knowledge, with conditions fifteen or twenty years ago in order to be convinced. Such comparison, if intelligently made, must prove little short of astonishing. The day of the empiric is departing if it is not already gone. The specialist who has searched all corners of his particular science under the best instructors, who has traveled the straight roads to clear thinking, is coming into possession of the field. The college man gets a welcome in any line, provided he has the right stuff in him. If he lacks experience, if his hands lack skill, it is coming to be taken for granted that his brain has been so disciplined that it will speedily make up for all deficiencies. The world has begun to realize that the college man who is in earnest has journeyed a long way in the direction of power by providing himself with a trained mind. Strong competition among employers for the services of new graduates in engineering, chemistry and

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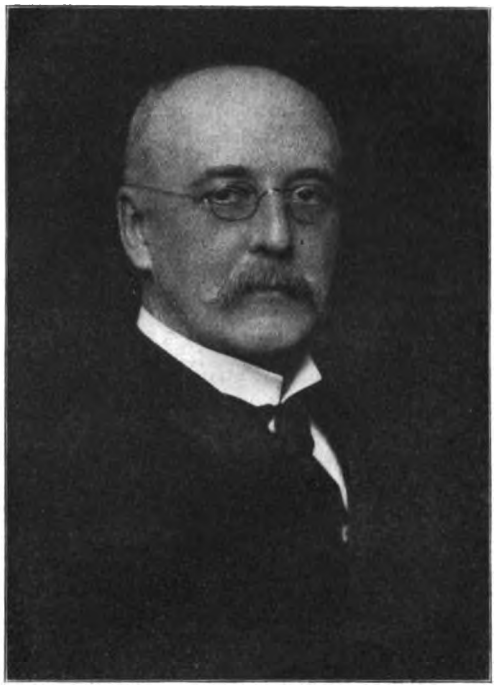

W. H. MAXWELL

other similar branches of practical learning, tells its own story. Those who have no specialty and therefore must look about them to find an opening rarely have difficulty now in discovering that the world has an abundance of remunerative work for them. These facts grow more patent every year.

The National Educational Association

The meeting of the National Educational Association at St. Louis was attended by something between twenty thousand and thirty thousand delegates. It was notable on many accounts. In the first place the National Council of the association refused to continue the propaganda for phonetic spelling, a committee on which has been more or less active during the past few years. The resolution of Miss Margaret A. Haley, of Chicago, favoring permanent tenure for teachers, also excited much interest. But perhaps the greatest stir was occasioned by the discussion of coeducation by Presidents Hall, of Clark; Angell, of Michigan; Jesse, of Missouri, and Thwing, of Western Reserve. The question of co-education is of perennial interest among teachers and the debate made it evident that we have not yet reached the final solution of the queries which it involves. W. H. Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools of New York, was elected president for the ensuing year.

The Religious World

Religious Conferences and Summer Schools

The early summer has become a time of meeting of student conferences of a religious sort. The Young Men's Christian Association maintains a number of such conferences: at Lake George, Lake Geneva; Eagle's Mere, Pa.; Glen Park, Colo., and Lampasas, Texas. Summer conferences for young women are held at Asheville, N. C.; Silver Bay, N. Y., and Lake Geneva. Quite as important as any of these, however, is the conference at Northfield, Mass., where the memory of Mr. Moody is still potent. In all these conferences the type of religion is generally conservative as regards theology, but aggressive as regards actual Christian activity. With such a leader as John R. Mott it is to be expected that they should lay emphasis upon a type of virile Christianity. It is to be hoped that in the course of a few years the representatives of the more modern theological tendencies will be given a chance to contribute their inspiration and outlook, both of which are quite as constructive with college students as that of the ordinary speaker. One of the great difficulties besetting work in colleges, especially in larger institutions, is the break between the type of thought demanded by most Christian associations and that inculcated in the classroom. The interest in biblical and theological matters is also attested in the various Chautauquas, the summer session of the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, and the Winona Assembly. With the exception of that in the Divinity School of the University of Chicago, the work done in such gatherings is rather one of inspiration and discussion of practical themes than of study. At the same time the general effect is decidedly educational and should go far toward keeping the hundreds of ministers in attendance in touch with the more conservative modern

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currents of thought. None the less, the general impression made by the various programs and addresses of these meetings is somewhat discouraging. Almost without exception they assume that ministers are appealing to a state of mind which is that neither of the educated class nor of the workingman. It is to be hoped that the efforts of Mr. Mott to induce the college student to consider the ministry as a life-work will result in an increase of men of more modern type in the ministry. The fact that out of approximately fifteen hundred college students whose careers have been chosen, only fifty-four have chosen the ministry, demands that immediate attention should be given to this vital matter. The Church of the future can not be led successfully by men whose sympathies are with the past, no matter how much they may attend summer schools.

The Conference of Rabbis

The conference of the rabbis of Reformed Judaism, held in Louisville during the latter part of June, was notable not so much in what it accomplished as in that it indicated the line of development likely to be followed by the important body of religionists it represents. Apparently this will be increasingly away from orthodox Judaism, both in the matter of the observance of Sunday instead of or in addition to Saturday as the Sabbath, and in the formation of a central body to give something like unity to the religious movement hitherto composed largely of independent congregations. Reformed Judaism numbers among its leaders some of the most profound Semitic scholars of the time, and finds itself increasingly in sympathy with the more liberal Christians. Its progress will be watched with increasing interest by all students of religion.

Religious Liberty in Japan

Recent reports from Japan deal with the charge that the victory of the Japanese in the present war would be a blow to Christianity. In the first place we have the official interview given by Count Katsura, Prime Minister of the Empire, to Rev. Dr. Imbrie, of the Presbyterian mission. In this Count Katsura calls attention to the religious liberty which is guaranteed by the constitution of Japan, and specially mentions the unrestricted activity of the Christian missionaries and the press. Quite as important as this was a conference recently held in Tokyo. The meeting was attended by at least one thousand people, including Protestant missionaries, Shintoists, Buddhists, Roman Catholics, Greek Catholics and Free Thinkers. The meeting unanimously adopted the following resolution:

> The war now existing between Japan and Russia has for its object, on the part of Japan, the security of the empire and the permanent peace of the East. It is carried on in the interests of justice, humanity and the civilization of the world. With differences between races or religions it has nothing whatever to do. We, therefore, meeting together without distinction of race or religion, agree that we will endeavor to publish to the world, each in a manner accordant with the methods observed in the religious body to which he belongs, the real purpose of the present war as now described. We also express a most earnest desire for the speedy accomplishment of an honorable peace.

New Interest in Religious Education

Just at the time that the National Educational Association is holding its convention at St. Louis it is interesting to observe the fact that the Religious Education Association is also taking up its work with new vigor. On June 28 it held an important session at St. Louis and is making plans for the formation of a great number of guilds in different parts of the country. In fact, education is becoming the keynote in church work. The interest in Sunday-school work is resulting in countless curricula and syllabi, while seminaries like Union and the Divinity School of the University of Chicago are paying increasing attention to the psychology of religion and religious pedagogy. At the same time the universities are taking up similar matters, and now comes news of the establishment of a *Journal of Religious Psychology and Education* to be edited by President G. Stanley Hall in coöperation with Professors Coe, Starbuck and Lenba. Just what results this change of emphasis will have upon the religious life of the future it is too early to see. But we are convinced that it can be only for good.

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THE SITUATION IN COLORADO—I

IS COLORADO IN AMERICA?

MARTIAL LAW DECLARED IN COLORADO!
HABEAS CORPUS SUSPENDED IN COLORADO!
FREE PRESS THROTTLED IN COLORADO!
BULL-PENS FOR UNION MEN IN COLORADO!
FREE SPEECH DENIED IN COLORADO!
SOLDIERS DEFY THE COURTS IN COLORADO!
WHOLESALE ARRESTS WITHOUT WARRANT IN COLORADO!
UNION MEN EXILED FROM HOMES AND FAMILIES IN COLORADO!
CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHT TO BEAR ARMS QUESTIONED IN COLORADO!
CORPORATIONS CORRUPT AND CONTROL ADMINISTRATION IN COLORADO!
RIGHT OF FAIR, IMPARTIAL AND SPEEDY TRIAL ABOLISHED IN COLORADO!
CITIZENS' ALLIANCE RESORTS TO MOB LAW AND VIOLENCE IN COLORADO!

UNDER THE FOLDS OF THE AMERICAN FLAG IN COLORADO!

EVERY WORD inscribed upon the stripes of "Old Glory" is the truth. If this flag is desecrated, the Republican Governor of Colorado is responsible for the acts that profane the emblem of liberty.

THE PICTURE represents Henry Makl, a union miner of Telluride, who was arrested for vagrancy---had money in his pocket and was being supported by his union. He was shackled to a telephone pole because he refused to work in a filthy cess-pool under the bayonets of the state militia.

WE ARE GOING TO BREAK his chains and the chains that are binding the working class of Colorado.

OUR STRUGGLE is for an eight hour day, to establish the right to organize for mutual benefit, and to prevent discrimination against union men.

IF YOU DESIRE to assist the striking Miners, Mill and Smeltermen of the Western Federation of Miners of Colorado in this battle for industrial and political freedom, send donations to Wm. D. Haywood, Sec'y-Treasurer, 625 Mining Exchange Building, Denver, Colorado.

Charles Moyer
PRESIDENT

Wm. D. Haywood
SEC'Y-TREASURER

A REPRODUCTION OF A POSTER DISTRIBUTED BY THE WESTERN FEDERATION OF MINERS

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THE SITUATION IN COLORADO—II

BY JAMES HAMILTON PEABODY

GOVERNOR OF COLORADO

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THE conditions in Colorado at the present time are so materially improved that there is little likelihood that any of the National Guard will remain in active service many days longer. The statement published throughout the country by the Western Federation of Miners that men have been hung by the neck, hung by the thumbs and tortured with thumbscrews is so absolutely false that it is not worthy of a public denial. Nothing of the kind has been indulged in or even contemplated. The elements of lawlessness which largely composed the Western Federation of Miners became so oppressive to the industrial peace and the industrial prosperity of Colorado that it was necessary to check their further advances by stringent measures.

But in this connection I desire to state most emphatically that martial law has not been declared in any portion of Colorado. Military law has been called into service to aid the civil authorities in maintaining loyalty to our constitution and compelling obedience to our law; nothing more. No person has been arraigned for crimes by the militia, no punishments have been inflicted by the militia; but the civil officers have controlled these matters during the entire period of insurrection. The labor strife in Colorado has not been one between labor and capital, but a certain lawless element of a certain labor organization has been waging war against all other labor, organized and unorganized. The proof of these statements is found in the horrible assassination of twelve innocent non-union miners upon the Independence depot platform June 6. All we ask for is obedience to the laws of Colorado, and this we shall demand and enforce. There has never been any contemplation of putting the whole state under martial law, nor any necessity for it. All reports to the contrary are utterly absurd; because fortunate is Colorado that the Western Federation of Miners infests but a small portion of our magnificent commonwealth.

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THE SITUATION IN COLORADO—III

BY THE EDITOR

IN a circular letter of June 20, 1904, the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor states that "there are certain policies pursued by the Western Fèderation of Miners that run counter to those advocated by the American Federation of Labor." The reference is undoubtedly to the socialism of the Colorado body. While declaring itself opposed to violence, the council treats the charges made by the miners as facts and declares that "the judiciary in Colorado has largely yielded the civil rights and functions of the court to a combination of plutocracy and militarism." The council further urges organized labor everywhere to give moral and financial assistance to the Western Federation of Miners in order that "the great question of constitutional liberty, human rights and civil government may be properly presented and defended, and we hope finally proclaimed by the federal courts of our country." With characteristic caution it adds that "every effort should be made by all lovers of their fellows to bring to an amicable adjustment the industrial conditions which now obtain in Colorado."

It was to be expected that organized labor would side with those who are fighting to protect themselves from the illegal undoing of a referendum vote in favor of an eight-hour day, but it is discouraging to find in the letter of the Executive Council so half-hearted a condemnation of the violence of the socialistic labor party of Colorado.

The situation is one that demands careful consideration of every citizen of the United States. It is something more than a local struggle; it is a disclosure of an actual danger to which our country is everywhere exposed. The passion of the moment should not blind us to the community of guilt that lies in these mutual recriminations. The history of the relation of corporations with the municipal and legislative bodies of Colorado is one of shameless corruption. The tyranny of labor unions has been in some regions a reign of terror.

The sober second thought of the entire country will condemn the high-handed measures of the military authorities as certainly as it condemns the violence of the miners. There are courts of law in Colorado. Men charged with violence should be tried and not deported. The exasperation of the moment is all the more reason for appealing to the courts. It is no time for employers and employed to recur to lynch law.

Organized labor and organized capital are two great facts that, for the safety of the Republic, must be adjusted. Dynamite and bull pens are no substitute for the courts. The decent citizens of Colorado should put an end to their state's disgrace through the polls. It is not a matter of socialism or of organized labor or of Citizens' Alliances; it is a matter of law, corporate honesty and legislative purity. If Colorado can settle labor troubles only by the establishment of military law, it is a shocking commentary on Colorado voters. It is also a menace to us all. To substitute bullets for ballots is a plea for revolution.

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M. CAREY THOMAS, PRESIDENT BRYN MAWR COLLEGE SINCE 1894

The high reputation for scholarship which Bryn Mawr has won in the educational world is in no small way due to the influence of its president. Dr. Thomas is a graduate of Cornell University and a doctor of philosophy of the University of Leipsic. It is inevitable that she should be the champion of higher education for women. Her recent address before the Federation of Women's Clubs in Berlin, in which she argued that more men than women broke down in college, has caused no small discussion.

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MARY E. WOOLLEY, PRESIDENT MT. HOLYOKE COLLEGE SINCE 1900

When the trustees of Mount Holyoke College, already famous as the creation of Mary Lyon, elected as president Miss Woolley, she was head of the Department of Biblical History and Literature in Wellesley College. Under her administration the college has been singularly prosperous. The old buildings destroyed by fire have been replaced by magnificent modern structures, and the course of instruction has been strengthened.

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CAROLINE HAZARD, PRESIDENT WELLESLEY COLLEGE SINCE 1899

President Hazard is a member of one of the most distinguished families of Rhode Island. Somewhat singularly she is not a graduate of any college, but received a careful education from private tutors. For several years before her election to the presidency of Wellesley she was well known in literature, being especially interested in New England history and genealogy. Her administration of Wellesley has been remarkably successful.

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BOWDOIN COLLEGE IN 1860

THE COLLEGE, EAST AND WEST

BY

SHAILER MATHEWS

NO people are so loyal to New England as those who no longer reside there. All over the country the man or woman who can prove New England descent, even in the second or third generation, is sure to make you acquainted with the fact, especially if you have yourself proclaimed that the same honor is yours. Similarly in the case of the New England college. There are institutions scattered over the country which base their claim for educational patronage very largely upon the fact that they are modeled after New England institutions and were founded by New England men. But such colleges are also much like their founders. Both feel out of place east of the Alleghenies.

None the less the college in the West is the lineal descendant of the college in the East. You are sure of it when the two are compared with institutions that have grown up under the influence of the University of Virginia. Even to-day secondary schools are only beginning to prosper in the South, and many older colleges are composed of various "schools" which students may enter with great differences in their preparatory accomplishments. But in the West the New England idea of entrance requirements has everywhere prevailed. It is true that the severity of examinations has been somewhat relaxed and students enter with high school certificates, often of varying values. But such a state of affairs is by no means unknown in New England, and in the western as truly as in the eastern institution there prevails a very distinct belief in the necessity of uniform entrance requirements. The catalogues of most institutions of any repute whatsoever will also show a tolerable uniformity in courses of instruction.

If one compares the better class of educational institutions in the West with those in the East, both as regards equipment, faculty and the character of instruction, the result will be surprisingly favorable to the western institution. A

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few years ago it was customary to speak in very slighting terms of the western college and to rank it as hardly more than an ordinary eastern high school. It is, of course, true that there are still many institutions in the West which in character are far below the names which they bear, but it is also true that they are already being pushed out of existence, or to a change of name. Various associations of colleges are rapidly making it difficult for the educational charlatan to thrive. Within the past ten years there has also been a remarkable advance in the endowment of the small college under denominational influence. He who visited these church colleges fifteen years ago would hardly recognize them to-day. Their endowments, it is true, are not enormous, but they are sufficient to guarantee the future. Their buildings are modern or thoroughly renovated. On their campus will be seen the customs—minus most of the nonsense—of eastern colleges, and their faculties are rapidly being manned by men who have had thorough graduate training. I am not speaking now, it will be remembered, of the magnificent state universities, which are peers of any institutions in the world. Nor am I thinking of richly endowed institutions like the Northwestern University, the University of Chicago and Leland Stanford Junior University, or of such institutions as Oberlin and Western Reserve, which have passed the collegiate stage pure and simple and have their strongly manned professional schools. I have in mind colleges like Lake Forest, Illinois and Knox in Illinois; Iowa and Cornell in Iowa; Beloit in Wisconsin; Denison, Kenyon, Miami, Marietta, Wooster, Ohio Wesleyan in Ohio; DePauw and Wabash in Indiana; Drury in Missouri; Carleton in Minnesota; and Colorado in Colorado. There are many of them and to mention all would require more space than is at my disposal.

COLLEGE ARCHITECTURE

It is interesting to notice the persistence of type even in the buildings in the older of these institutions. The original New England colleges had only two or three buildings. One of these at least was a dormitory, as plain and comfortless as the barracks or the factory buildings of the middle of the last century. The recitation hall, with its belfry, generally stood either between or somewhat out of line

BOWDOIN COLLEGE, WITH ITS MODERN BUILDINGS, IN 1904

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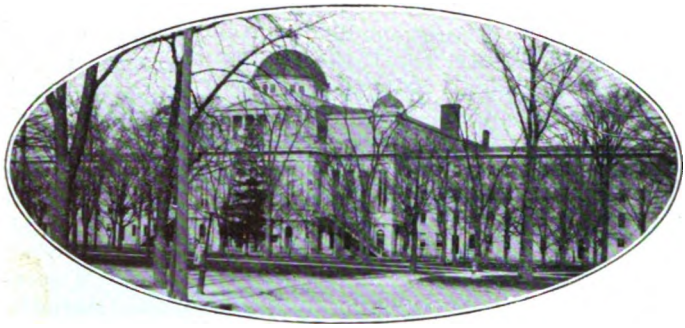

MAIN BUILDING, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

with the two dormitories. Such simplicity of equipment marked the days when the ideal of education was classical, and students were to all intents and purposes absolutely uninstructed in physical science. Gymnasiums, art museums, laboratories and libraries were unknown. The dormitories, the recitation hall and the college fence made the "yard" or "campus."

Speaking roughly, any college founded in the West before 1850 had the same rectangular, bare dormitory and the recitation hall. The fence was lacking, but the belfry was present. The appearance of one large building in which could be grouped the recitation-rooms, dormitories and chapel and library marks the influence of new forces in educational matters. Occasionally one will find one or more of these old college buildings built after the classic style with noble columns, but this is more true of the southern college building than of the western. A somewhat interesting evidence of the transition to the idea of a single, huge college building is to be seen at the University of Michigan, where the two brick buildings of the traditional shape were joined into one large building by the erection of a connecting rotunda.

By the middle of the century this type of college architecture became less common, and the colleges which sprang up throughout the West were dominated by the idea of a single large building. To a large extent this idea doubtless arose in the state universities, where, very naturally, the state capitol served as model. The main building of the University of Wisconsin is an example of this new type of college building. Even when the colleges which were not state institutions came to erect their buildings they brought the various interests of the institution under one roof. Sometimes these buildings were dignified as well as large, but often the rather crude ambitions of the architect resulted in architectural unattractiveness. Within late years, however, the pendulum seems to have swung backward, and in all the colleges which are now being so rapidly furnished with modern buildings, it is only exceptionally that the great structures of a generation ago are duplicated. Perhaps, after all, the real cause of the "omnibus" building was the characteristically American desire to get as much culture as possible for one's money!

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN EAST AND WEST

In some particulars circumstances have forced the western college into independent developments. Thanks to the existence of good secondary schools, the eastern college almost never had or has a preparatory department. The western college almost as invariably has. Sometimes this has proved a serious hindrance to the college, and, of late years, under the combined pressure of competition with the state universities and the association of colleges of certain collegiate standing and of rules governing athletics, the preparatory department has been sharply differentiated from the collegiate.

In another way, also, the western col-

BEECHER HALL, ILLINOIS COLLEGE (1828)
The oldest College Building in the West

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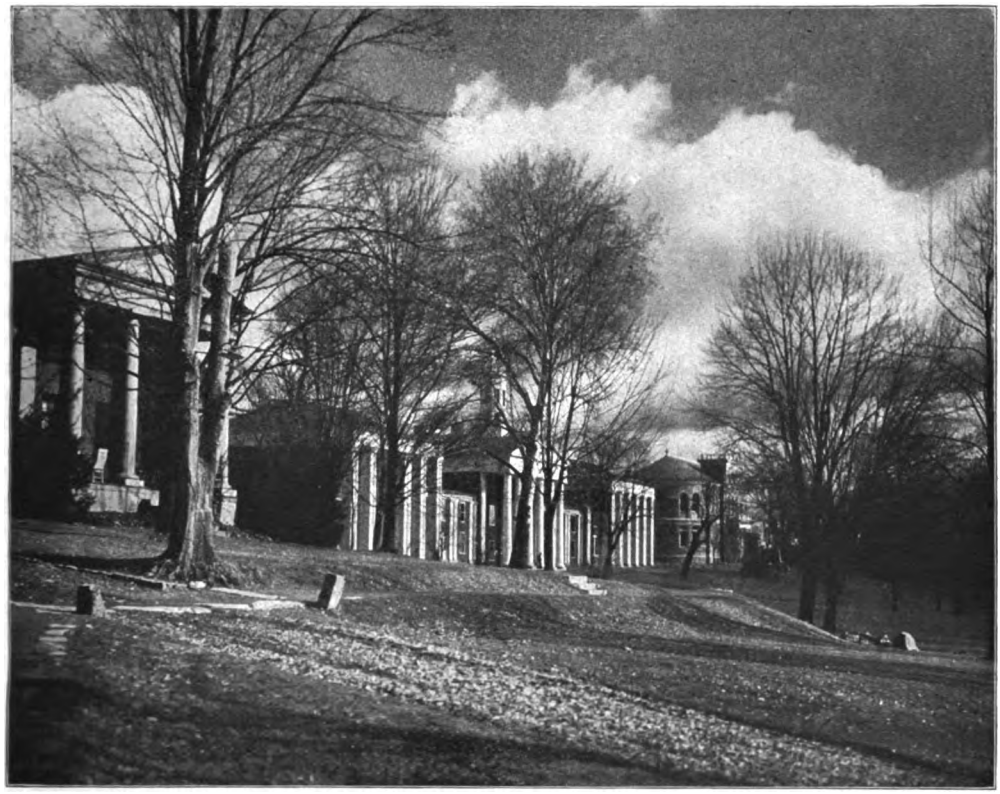
lege differs from its prototype. Almost without exception it is coeducational. Here again the influence of the state university has been doubtless felt strongly. Colleges of collegiate rank intended exclusively for women are lacking in the West. They are not needed. Coeducation is a matter of course. How deep-seated is the belief that young men and women should have precisely the same educational opportunities was unexpectedly evidenced in the recent excitement over the decision of the University of Chicago to supplement the advantages of coeducation by establishing separate colleges for men and women during their freshman and sophomore years.



WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY, LEXINGTON, VA.

THE COMMON IDEAL

In its ideals the western college has been almost without exception a child of New England parents quite as truly as in the matter of its organization and buildings. It is uniformly the child of the church. In fact, one might almost say, the child of New England Congregationalism. Oberlin in Ohio, Illinois in Illinois, Beloit and Ripon in Wisconsin, Iowa College in Iowa, Colorado College in Colorado, Drury in Missouri, and Carleton in Minnesota, were all founded by Congregationalists. But the Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, Disciples and other denominations have also founded colleges, some of which, like Drake University and Northwestern University, have grown to be large institutions. The University of Chicago, from its inception under Baptist influences, has been upon university rather than college lines. Most of these institutions, however, still retain their purely collegiate character.

What is the ideal to which the college East and West is loyal? If we were to answer this question from the not very distant past, it would undoubtedly be "culture." The university, we have been told, stands for investigation and method. Its discipline is that of a specialist. On the other hand the secondary school stands

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for general elementary mental discipline by the means of studies which have no connection with bread and butter. Between these two used to lie the field of the college. The ancient languages, mathematics, and, to a more limited extent, English literature and science, all treated from the point of view of general culture rather than of professional inquiry, have made up its curriculum. To a considerable degree the same is true to-day. But the idea of culture as something distinct from ability to make one's living is rapidly disappearing. The great majority of people who graduate from college now enter business. What the college does for such students, both East and West, is to make them more self-reliant, more possessed of general information, and better able for the intellectual tasks which the complicated modern society is giving them. It does not, however, either in the West or in the East, give many of them an interest in literature or science as elements of culture. If they become devoted to such matters, they generally undertake to make their living by teaching them.

Whether or not this modification of the ideal of the college is really an improvement will be a subject of general contention. On the one hand, if one looks only at the remarkable success attending the graduates of the college of the old type, it may be argued that the change is a detriment. On the other hand, when one compares the curriculum of the college of to-day with that of the college of twenty-five years ago, it is clear that the range of human interest has been certainly vastly increased. The elective system, more or less modified, has uniformly resulted in the increase of men especially fitted to pursue certain lines of scientific investigation. Perhaps this fact overbalances the dangers of too early specialization. We have not yet quite come to the conclusion that all colleges should introduce courses directly preparing men for industrial life, but already a very considerable advance has been made in that direction by the establishment of undergraduate schools of commerce, administration and of journalism, in several of our great universities.

It is unwise, if indeed not impossible, for colleges with faculties of fifteen or twenty to compete in the matter of special training in all branches with institutions completely equipped with laboratories and with faculties ranging into the hundreds. The question is both of the number of students and of income. A college, for example, with an income of between $40,000 and $50,000, in a location where its professors can live comfortably

THE NEW ENGLAND CAMPUS IN THE WEST—IOWA COLLEGE

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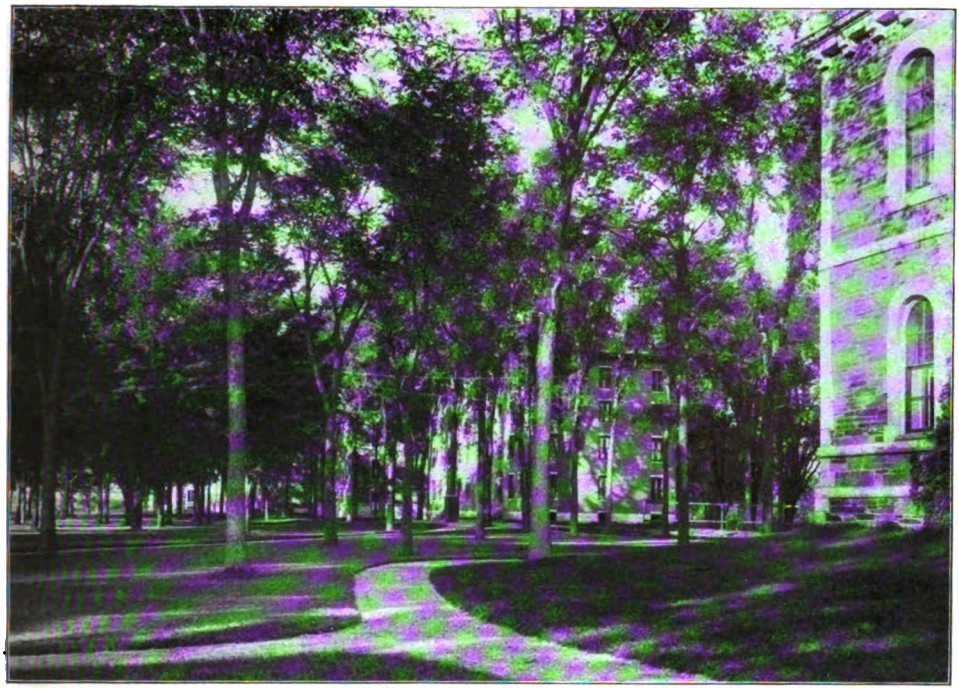

A TYPICAL NEW ENGLAND CAMPUS—COLBY COLLEGE, MAINE

on $1,800 or $2,000 a year, is in a position to offer all reasonable opportunities for culture to an undergraduate body of one hundred and seventy-five to three hundred students. But specialization can not be carried far. The vital question for such institutions is whether or not they will frankly urge men who wish to become specialists to attend universities, and undertake themselves to do exceptionally strong work in the general discipline. Only by a decision thus to devote itself to thoroughness rather than to extent of education, can the American college keep itself true to anything like its important function as a source of culture rather that of professional accomplishment.

THE FUTURE OF THE COLLEGE

What is to be the future of the colleges? On the one side are the magnificently endowed and equipped universities; on the other side are the secondary schools steadily taking over the work formerly done in the freshman and even sophomore years of college life. Can the college as an institution survive? No answer can be given to such a question which disregards different geographical conditions. There is no doubt that in the East loyalty, born of generations of alumni, will continue to send colleges students. In the West denominational interests and local pride, as well as call for economy, will work toward the same result. But in both cases we are beginning to see that the continuance of the college is possible only as it arranges its courses to make its last year, if indeed not the last two years, anticipatory of graduate work by its graduates. Universities with professional schools are all but a unit in so arranging their courses that a man may make his academic and professional degree in six years. To meet this competition the smaller colleges are making such arrangements with professional schools as will admit their graduates to advanced credit.

At the same time there is growing up in the Middle West, under the influence of the University of Chicago, an educational type which is different from either the college or the university, that is, the institute. Two institutions of this class, the Lewis Institute, of Chicago, and the Bradley Polytechnical Institute, of Peoria, are in equipment and endowment superior to many colleges of high rank. Yet they do not undertake to carry men

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NASSAU HALL, PRINCETON, BUILT IN 1750

farther than the sophomore year in college, and do not give the academic degree. Their graduates are, however, ready to enter most professional schools or to take up in various universities work leading to the professional schools, which will at the same time give them the academic degree. These institutes have not as yet met with general acceptance in the pedagogical world, but it is not difficult to believe that the tendencies of colleges in the West during the next generation will be toward the models they have set.

It can not be denied that from one point of view this tendency to sacrifice culture for professional equipment is to be deplored. It seems but one more phase of the commercializing process. If one did not hope that experience would in some way correct the belittling of the ideals for which the college has stood in the past, this forecast of the future would certainly cause consternation. It is one thing to interest a man in studies that will help him make a living, and quite another to interest him in studies which will help him to enjoy life. The old college stood for both. The newer education just now is standing almost entirely for the former. It does not seem to me that such an ideal can last. The college professor must be something more than a man who pursues the trade of educating people to make money. He must stand fundamentally for moral idealism. There are already beginning to appear evidences that, as in the case of the architecture, so in the case of its ideals, the college is to swing toward the standards of the older institutions. We do not want our institutions to produce men out of sympathy with common human endeavor, but neither do we want them to produce merely well-trained business men. Somewhere between the two extreme ideals lies that mingling of culture and commercial efficiency to which one's optimism bids one feel our collegiate education is tending, both East and West. And, if we mistake not, quite as rapidly in the West as in the East.

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TRAFFIC ON THE GREAT LAKES

BY HUGO ERICHSEN

THE development of navigation on the Great Lakes was a natural consequence of the expansion of the various industries of the Northwest, subsequent to the Civil War. The liberal land policy of the government enabled many of the men who had fought its battles to establish homesteads in the new territory and to add millions of acres to the grain-producing area of the United States. Golden harvests attracted the attention of others to the possibilities of the northwestern region and led to the exploration of its mineral wealth. The consequent increase in population created a demand for lumber and coal, and this, in turn, for vessels to carry all these natural products to the consumer. Thus, by a process of evolution, the inland marine grew from a small beginning to its present magnificent proportions.

The people of this country have thus far, however, scarcely realized the importance and magnitude of the traffic on the chain of lakes. Only a short time ago Detroit stood second as a port of entry in the United States, and by this time she may possibly stand first, as she handles over seventeen per cent of the exports of the entire series of northern border and lake ports. It has long been a proud boast of the City of the Straits that more than twice as much tonnage passes through the Detroit River during the season of lake navigation, as through the Suez Canal during the entire year. This is literally true. The figures for 1902, for instance, as given by the Blue Book of American Shipping, are 48,000,000 tons for the Detroit River, as against 11,248,413 tons for the international waterway.

The summaries of the tonnage passing the government locks at Sault Ste. Marie afford the best indication of the enormous growth of lake commerce, as the greatest development of the grain and iron ore trades has been through ports at the head of Lake Superior. These reports show that the freight movement in 1902 had reached the enormous total of 35,961,146 net tons, against 11,214,333 tons in 1892, only ten years previous, and against only 1,567,741 tons in 1881, the first year in which the number of tons of freight was

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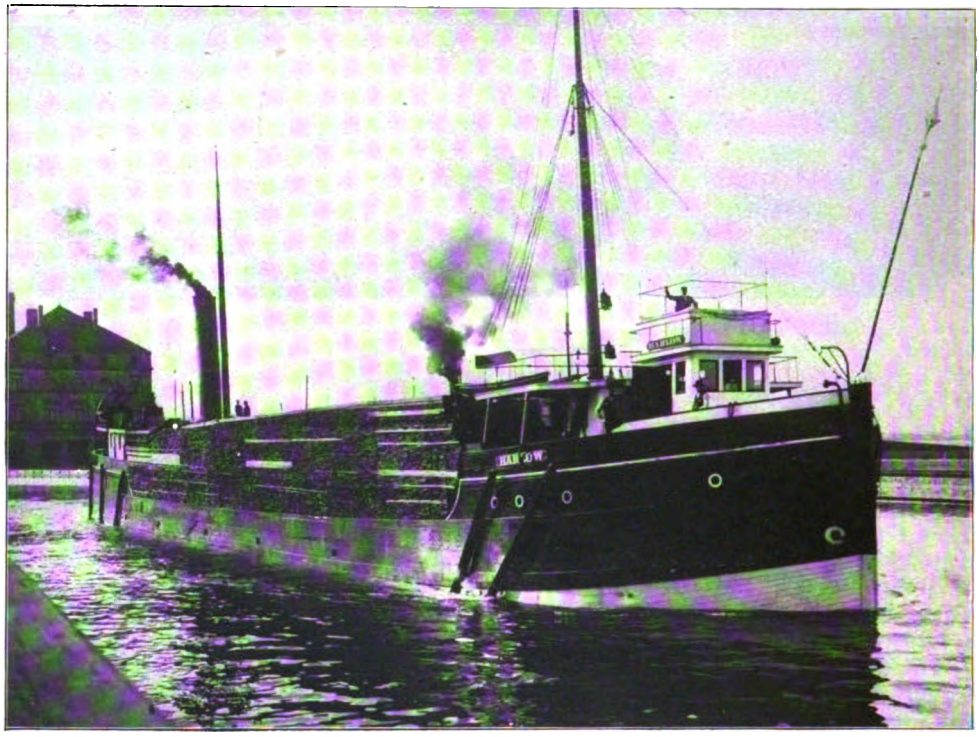
recorded. Similar gains are shown in the registered tonnage of vessels, which amounted to 31,955,582 tons in 1902, as compared with 10,647,203 tons in 1892. In 1903 the totals were: Iron ore, 21,654,898 tons; coal, 6,937,633 tons, and grain, 93,480,198 bushels.

When the late Senator Hanna directed the attention of Congress to the importance of the shipping industry on the lakes, he recalled the time nearly a century ago, when the good ship Escanaba carried 600 tons of iron ore from Escanaba to Cleveland, while to-day there are steamers on these waters carrying 6,000 gross tons in one cargo and the product of the Lake Superior region represents more than seventy-five per cent of the iron ore consumed throughout the United States.

The beginning of the grain traffic on the lakes was also a modest one, and dates back only to the year 1836, when the first through cargo of wheat from the upper lake regions was shipped to Buffalo. The staunch brig John Kinsey carried safely 3,000 bushels in all, and sailed into the mouth of Buffalo Creek as gallantly as the modern propeller now glides into that same channel to discharge a cargo of 200,000 bushels and upward. But it was not till three years later that the grain from the new West began to move eastward in bulk. At the present day grain shipments constitute twenty per cent of the traffic on the great lakes, aggregating 284,505,369 bushels in 1902, inclusive of flour.



A LUMBER BARGE PASSING THROUGH SAULT STE. MARIE CANAL

The whaleback freighters used in the iron carrying trade, better known among mariners as "lake pigs," are peculiar and interesting. They were originally designed by Captain McDougal, the builder of the passenger whaleback, "Christopher Columbus," that came into prominence at the Columbian Exposition. In the water these ships resemble a mammoth iron boiler afloat, with a small superstructure at either end. Except for the small cabin and the bridge, these curious vessels offer no opposition to wind or weather,

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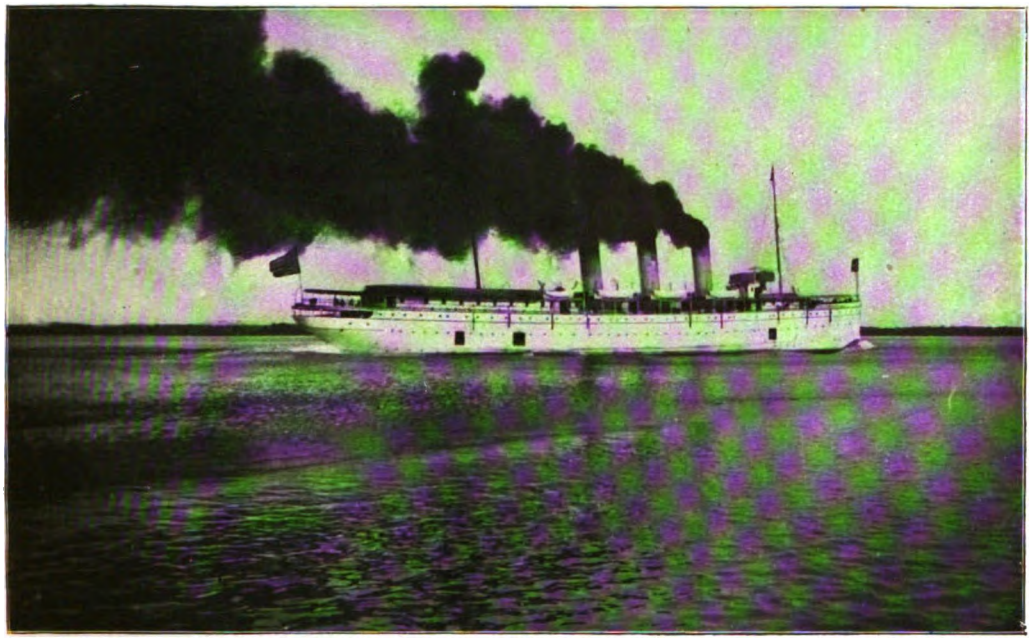

A PASSENGER STEAMER ON THE GREAT LAKES

the waves rolling entirely over them whenever a sea is running. The whalebacks, however, have not met with favor among lake navigators and their construction has been abandoned.

Although the north woods have been sadly decimated, lumber is still one of the principal items of the lake exports, amounting to 1,003,192,000 feet in 1903, as compared to 722,000 feet which passed through the St. Mary's Falls Canal in 1870.

A WHALEBACK—A DISAPPEARING TYPE

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AN EXCURSION STEAMER ON THE DETROIT RIVER

THE MAIN CABIN OF AN EXCURSION STEAMER

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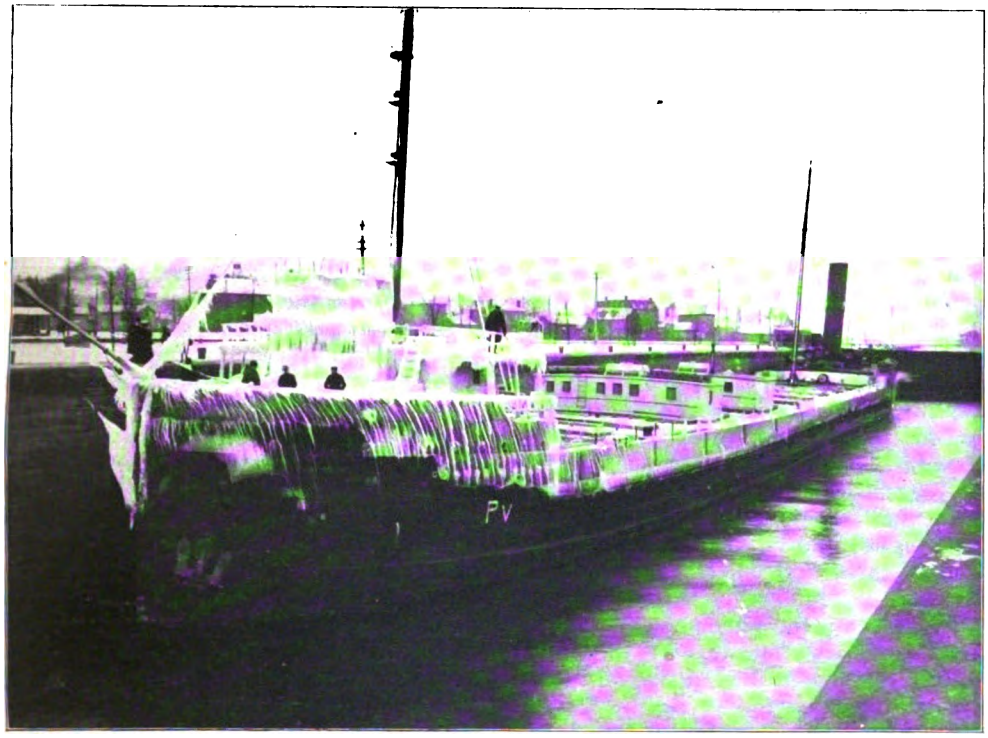
It is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain any information with reference to coal movements on the lakes, as the railroads refuse to give out reliable data. According to the United States Bureau of Statistics, however, 15,504,540 tons were carried in 1902, including coal taken on by steam vessels for fuel.

The development of the traffic on the lakes naturally leads to a consideration of the character of the vessels engaged in it. As might be expected, this underwent a great change in the course of time. In 1862 there were in the waters of the great lakes 350 steam vessels, with a measurement of 125,620 tons and 1,152 sailing vessels with a measurement of 257,689 tons. Thus the sailing tonnage was a trifle more than double that of steam. There was practically no change in the relative importance of these two classes of vessels during the next twenty years, but in 1884 the steam tonnage exceeded the sail tonnage and since then has increased with great rapidity, being now almost four times as extensive. The increase in the size of the ships and substitution of steam for sails brought about another change, namely, the substitution of steel for wood, in order to secure greater strength. But in 1886, the number of steel freighters on the lakes was still limited to six, with an aggregate net tonnage of 6,459 tons. By 1890, however, the number had increased to sixty-eight, with an aggregate net tonnage of 99,457. And since that time the construction of steel vessels has increased even more rapidly, until it may be safely affirmed that steel is the material used in the construction of two-thirds of the tonnage built for the lake traffic at the present day. As Charles C. Rogers truly remarks, in writing of the changes that have attended the construction of the lake fleets: "The history of marine architecture does not furnish another instance of so rapid and complete a revolution in the material of floating equipment as has taken place on the Great Lakes since 1886."



A SUGGESTION AS TO LAKE TRAFFIC IN WINTER

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Nor has the end of the shipbuilding industry on the lakes been reached as yet. The gradual displacement of the old and decaying wooden tonnage on these waters will certainly provide the shipyards of this highway of commerce with employment for many years.

The favorable conditions under which steamers operate on the Great Lakes may undoubtedly be considered one of the main factors in the development of navigation on these inland waterways. Good steaming coal is obtainable at a reasonable price and the voyages are short, rendering it unnecessary to carry a great amount of dead freight in the form of coal. Moreover, the cargoes are largely made up of what is commonly called through traffic and composed of but few commodities, all of which are handled in large quantities and on long hauls, many freighters being so constructed that they can handle ore, lumber, etc., interchangeably.

On the other hand, lake carriers have to contend with some drawbacks that do not pertain to ocean traffic. Among these are the shortness of the season of navigation and the competition of the railroads. The latter is not formidable, however, as may be inferred from the following comparison. During the past five years the cost of moving a ton of freight one mile on the lakes has been ninety-eight hundredths of a mill, as compared to three and one-half mills on the railroads.

Of late years the phenomenon that has attracted most attention on the Great Lakes is the change in the size and character of the passenger vessels. Two of these, owned by one of the transcontinental railroads, have been constructed throughout on the models of the swiftest Atlantic liners. The hulls are of steel and the plans have been carried out with a view of making these steamers not only the most modern and luxurious, but also the strongest and safest conveyances on the lakes. The length of these vessels, over all, is 386 feet; breadth, 44 feet; depth, 26 feet; tonnage, 5,000, and horsepower, 8,000. Each ship has a capacity of over 500 passengers and carries a crew of over 185 men.

Two new mammoth steel passenger steamers, now plying between Detroit and eastern ports, are also worthy of mention. They were constructed at a cost of $650,000 each, are 366 feet long over all, 356 feet on the water line, 80 feet breadth over guards, 20 feet molded depth, 12 feet at light draft and 3,400 tons displacement. Each vessel is propelled by 5,000 horse-power, given by a horizontal triple expansion engine, steam for which is furnished by cylindrical steam boilers, with Howden forced draft. The feathering paddle wheels are 25 feet in diameter, the average speed being 21 miles an hour. These crafts are licensed to carry 3,500 persons and have sleeping accommodations for 750 passengers. Safety and comfort were prime considerations in their construction. Both are of steel and equipped with a complete system of water-tight compartments to prevent sinking in the event of accident.

As to comfort, these palatial steamers —and I include under that term every other first-class vessel on the lakes—are provided with every luxury and convenience known to the modern marine architect. The main cabins are broad and roomy, elegantly finished in mahogany, thoroughly ventilated, lighted by electricity and furnished in a sumptuous style. Bathrooms are connected with some of the staterooms, all of the latter being provided with two berths, electric lights and stationary washstands. Telephones or call bells connect each stateroom with the office, so that one might imagine oneself in a prominent hotel ashore, were it not for the sounds of the sea and the almost imperceptible motion of the ship. The cuisine and table appointments, too, are of the best and under the direct management of competent stewards. Many of the waiters speak several languages, and are secured from the best New York cafés. Music by well-trained orchestras, a carefully selected library and the usual deck games practiced on transatlantic liners provide entertainment during the trip, in addition to the little impromptu affairs that are arranged as the passengers become acquainted with one another.

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THE TRANSFORMATION OF NEW ENGLAND

IS IT CHANGE OR IS IT DECLINE?

BY

A. A. BERLE

THE cosmopolitan character of the American people has been the subject of much speculation. There have been many predictions as to the probable effect of the amalgamation of so many races under a single government, that government itself the hugest experiment in democracy which the world has ever seen. The discussion of this subject is now passing out of the primary stage of anxiety and alarm into the secondary stage of critical examination and reflection. Even the earliest results of investigation made under the critical method reveal the fact that most of the fears of forty years ago were misleading. It can be shown that the foreign populations, those of foreign birth and parentage of the first generation, are not merely among the most substantial and conservative forces of the nation but also among the most progressive and enlightened. Evidently long residence and traditional association with the artistic ideals of the old world have not failed to exert their influence when the subjects of such association, even as citizens of monarchies with but little opportunity for personal utterance, are transferred to a land whose most notable gift to its citizens is large and comprehensive freedom of personal initiative.

A distinguished southern historian said some years ago that American history had been written only from the New England standpoint as yet and that when the South had produced a type of historians equal to those of New England, and the contributions of the middle and southern states were given their proper valuation, it would be seen that the one-sided New England view of American origins would be found to be very defective and would require great alteration. Since that utterance American history is steadily being written with greater power from the standpoint of the sections named, and the prediction made is being fulfilled. And the most interesting fact concerning the contribution of the middle states is that, speaking generally, it represents the participation and activity of other than English-speaking Americans in the making of the republic. From New York came the Dutch contribution, from Delaware that of the Swedes, from Pennsylvania that of the Germans, from the Carolinas that of the French Huguenots, to say nothing of certain Irish contingents which appear with characteristic Irish tenacity at various interesting points in the story. It seems clear that while the New England primacy will probably never be disputed as to the creation and original composition of the American nationality, that primacy will mean much less than it has hitherto.

RURAL NEW ENGLAND

The house in which this article is written, the Dix mansion, Boscawen, New Hampshire, stands on the main street of what was probably one of the most remarkable communities in America. It was the early residence of a family that has made noteworthy contributions to the history and life of America, civil, military and ecclesiastical. In it was born the man whose stirring order, "If any man attempts to haul down the American flag shoot him on the spot," did much to precipitate the Civil War—John Adams Dix. From one window of it hung the first shingle of the greatest expounder of the American Constitution—Daniel Webster. A few hundred yards down the street was born one of the great financiers of the war period, one of the great secre-

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taries of the treasury, William Pitt Fessenden. A few hundred feet up the road still stands the Webster homestead where resided not only the "god-like Daniel" but his scarcely less gifted if less well-known brother, Ezekiel Webster, whose early death was, as the memorial tablet truthfully states, "a loss to the state and the nation." Across the street was born a governor of New Hampshire, Moody Currier, who was not only a good administrator, a successful banker, but a man of sentiment and culture, with gifts of such poetic quality that if not a poet his verses show a nature that under proper conditions might have developed a poet. A little farther up, at the other end of the town, still stands the house in which the Rev. Samuel Wood lived, for fifty-three years the pastor of the church in this community, with an intellectual primacy and command by the side of which many metropolitan pastorates of to-day look exceedingly limited in influence and power. Dr. Wood was as truly the intellectual pope of his province in this section of New Hampshire as any head of a department at Harvard or the University of Chicago. And the list of men whom he fitted and sent or caused to be fitted and sent to Dartmouth College would itself make a notable register. In this town Professor Moses G. Farmer made and exhibited a model, anticipating the modern electric trolley car, more than fifty years ago. The number of lawyers, commissioned officers, ministers and missionaries who have gone forth from this community almost exceeds belief.

Now at the time all this history was achieving, as may be seen by the shops still standing, the occupations of the people besides farming were of the simplest character. Teams came from Haverhill and other shoe centers with partially finished shoes which were distributed by dozens to the local shoe shops, little buildings removed from the dwellings, and gathered up a week or two later finished, to be taken back to the factories. This was the extent to which the manufacturing idea had a place in the life of the town. But it had a homogeneous people for the most part, who spoke an almost pure English tongue and were governed by the New England ideals unalloyed by extensive contact with the outer world. Their literature consisted of the classics, the Bible and the missionary reports.

This town of Boscawen may fairly be taken as typical of the prosperous rural New England community of a century ago. It exceeds many others in its productiveness of great names but it is not exceptional in its general outlines of character, habits and ideals. Industrially it was a simple civilization and there was in consequence a very high intellectual and moral development. Yet even in that early period a singular fact of its moral history appears to be the prevalence of the social evil, resulting in numerous cases of illegitimate birth.

To-day this community has lost every striking characteristic of a century ago. Its industries have moved to Manchester, Haverhill or Lowell. Its youth, as soon as they acquire the capacity and education, leave for the urban centers. Its morality is neither distinctive nor exceptional. Its literature consists for the most part of the yellow press of Boston and New York. One of the most curious phases of this latter civilization is to see a French Canadian go down the long street on summer Sunday mornings bearing huge bundles of Sunday newspapers which form the Sunday mental exercises for a large portion of the street. This must not however be construed as indicating that there are not many of the noblest and godliest people in the world resident in the old town. It is neither better nor worse than hundreds like it in every part of New England. It is merely saying that they have become the hopeless minority. A quarter of a mile up the road where the present writer officiated at the funeral of an old woman, who had served in his household at various times, on the day of her burial, with one single exception every member of her family (all adult and married) was drunk, and some of them actually fell asleep during the reading of the burial service. Two of them spent the night before in the lockup as the result of a drunken brawl. Nor are these exceptional cases. Nowhere in America probably are there to be found cases of degradation exceeding in their pitiful human appeal those to be found in the hill towns of New England.

Yet it is also true that in mid-summer during the vacation season there may be

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found on this very street graduates of Harvard, Yale, Cornell, Dartmouth, Oberlin and other colleges, which shows that possibly in the years to come there may be another regeneration of a better sort. Educationally the decline corresponds to the industrial collapse. The public school has been the glory of New England. Yet here elementary education is practically naught, and while there is an arrangement whereby the pupils properly fitted are supported by the town in the high school at Concord (ten miles distant) yet the number of such students must steadily decrease, since the local school grows steadily poorer and the standards at Concord grow steadily higher. Hence, unless there comes a revolution in method, the next generation locally bred will be almost illiterates. Yet the town has electric lights and a water system which gives better service than that which the writer's household had in his Boston or Chicago residence. It has a local telephone system which gives communication with all the surrounding towns and distant cities. It is within three hours of Boston on the main line of a railroad. It is within ten miles of the capital and has traditions equaled by few of the towns in the whole country. No amount of sophistry can hide or mitigate the fact that here was a town set on a hill literally, as well as morally, socially, educationally and religiously. Yet its decline has been steady and sure. Just at present there seems to be a period of standstill, with the tendency upward due to outside influences which may yet turn the tide. But as an illustration of the history of the hill towns and rural regions of New England it is typical. Great and splendid history and traditions, succeeded by industrial, moral and intellectual decline. This town can not either, as so many towns are wont to claim, attribute the result to foreign invasion. Most of the inhabitants are still English speaking. The foreign element is comparatively unimportant either as to extent or influence.

It is doubtless the recognition of these conditions which has moved the Connecticut Legislature to pass this year most extraordinary and unusual measures for state aid to the small towns, not merely in the matter of highways but what seems more striking in New England—schools. The statute provides, among other things, that towns having a grand list (total taxation list) of less than $500,000 shall receive "a sum which will enable the town annually to expend for the public schools, $25 for each child in average attendance." It is provided that this money shall be paid for teachers' salaries and that there shall be a certain minimum accompanying tax. But think of state aid for public schools for New England towns! Sixty years ago hardly a town in New England but would have regarded this act as pauperism and an indictment of its intelligence and self-respect. But the hill and rural districts of New England have changed.

If it were necessary this history could be duplicated through the whole of New England. New Hampshire has rather an advantage over the hill towns of Massachusetts and Connecticut in that it is attractive for summer homes, and the movement of reclaiming the old wastes is assuming considerable proportions. The effect of such conditions upon the political life is best studied in Rhode Island, where the venality and corruptness of the rural towns exceeds anything that has ever been told of Chicago or New York. The same thing is true of the rural regions of Connecticut. It is a great mistake to think of the great cities as affording the most degrading illustrations of political baseness. They exceed in luridness and picturesqueness. But in bald, unattractive, hateful venality and shamelessness, the rural sections of Rhode Island and Connecticut are the unchallenged leaders in the country. They are not merely politically wicked. They are also unashamed, and the purchase of legislators which goes on in these sections, and is not unknown in New Hampshire and Vermont also, is among the most disgusting chapters of the political history of the country.

THE PASSING OF THE YANKEE.

Massachusetts has the greatest philanthropic history of any state in the union. If in recent years her benefactions have not been as large as those of other states, it is because much of the benevolence of many other states comes from men of Massachusetts origin and birth. It was true a few years ago that Massachusetts

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contributed one-third of the whole amount of money received by the Congregational Home Missionary Society, an organization for the purpose of supplying preaching to needy portions of our country. It is still true that the legacies for benevolent purposes exceed in number, in Massachusetts, any other state and are more numerous than those of many states put together. This great philanthropic consciousness in Massachusetts had its source in the pride of the commonwealth in its own exceptional condition as a community of people of homogeneous origin, aims and character. It did not occur to the thrifty men and women who made legacies for the propagation of the gospel in Africa or China or Arizona and Colorado that the pulpits of the very churches in which they worshiped would be occupied by men so poorly educated that they would shrink with surprised shame from them if they had to listen to some of their discourses. They did not dream that the time would come when the Massachusetts Home Missionary Society would choose a secretary because he was a foreigner and versed in foreign languages and therefore better able to do the work of the society. It did not occur to them that Massachusetts would be dependent upon a theological seminary in Chicago for the training of men capable of preaching in their own tongue to the masses of the foreign-speaking peoples within the borders of the commonwealth. Yet all these things have come to pass. When one remembers the Minnesota to which Bishop Whipple went and the story of Brainerd and the Indians, still within the memory of men now living, it seems like a preposterous assertion that Massachusetts has more home missionaries employed within its borders in the Congregational body than any other state in the union. Minnesota, exceeding in area the little Bay State by over 70,000 square miles, has only 102 home missionaries while Massachusetts has 142! This single fact is a better index to what has happened in Massachusetts in the last sixty years than any other single fact could be.

What makes the moral decline more significant, too, is the fact that it does not indicate any financial collapse. Between 1870 and 1902 a careful estimate based upon the assessed valuations and savings bank deposits shows the wealth of Massachusetts to have increased thirty per cent per capita. At the same time the missionary problem has steadily grown in gravity and intensity. The most striking transformation has come in the cities, especially the industrial centers. Massachusetts is distinctly a commonwealth of cities. Grouped around Boston are cities and towns which, if included in a radius equal to that of Chicago, would make a city almost if not quite as large as Chicago and much more closely correlated and interdependent than many sections in Chicago are. The economic waste involved in the maintenance of these various local governmental organizations of one kind and another must be something enormous and can hardly be computed. But throughout the commonwealth there are numerous small cities of between twenty and thirty thousand inhabitants which exhibit a spectacle which is to be found nowhere else in the country.

Perhaps in all Massachusetts there is not a city which has a character more distinctly and impressively its own than the old city of Salem. Founded two years before Boston, for years governed and directed in all its civic and cultural affairs by as gifted an aristocracy of intellect and character as was ever maintained anywhere, the monuments of which in the Essex Institute, the Salem Athenaeum, and other institutions still remain the finest of their size and class in the world, with cosmopolitan outlook arising from its extensive foreign commerce, this community was apparently to be the last in the entire commonwealth to change its character and status. Yet to-day it has relatively a population as cosmopolitan as Chicago. It has not only lost the Puritan predominance but has become a mixed urban community, with the urban problem fully developed in miniature. The kindergartens of Salem teach almost as many races as those of Chicago, and when the distinguished head of Hull House describes the regions round about Halstec Street, the ladies of the club which she addresses know exactly what she means for over in the region of the Naumkeag Mills they can see and probably have seen exactly the people whom the lecturer is describing. The kindergartners will tell you of the Russian, Polish, Greek and Ar-

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menian children or of the children of the Ghetto, just as your metropolitan worker describes them in the large city. The old families see their former conceded hereditary right to govern the city rudely wrested from them by political adventurers whose vulgarity and noise make the better classes wonder whether they live in Salem or Bedlam. The only statue in a public square singularly enough is one of Father Matthew, the Catholic temperance apostle. And even more singularly, on that square face most of the saloons when the town votes for license. What is true of Salem is true also of the neighboring cities of Peabody, Danvers and smaller communities.

Here, as in Chicago, the foreigners are rearing the children and crowding the public schools. Here the first generation of the children of immigrants are already taking their places at the head of the most venerable institutions. The moral ideal of the Puritan as a determinative force is as extinct as though it had never existed except in that small portion of the community described as "the old families," and these for the most part are dying out. Nowhere is the metamorphosis of New England seen with greater force or suggestiveness than in an old city like Salem. Side by side with the most ancient institutions and ideals have arisen the continental notions of life and habits which have not only brought themselves forward, modified by the New England ideals and environment, but as steadily have they in turn worn away the rigor and immobility of the Puritan ideal till it has become chiefly a memory and nothing more.

Yet it must not be supposed that this has involved decline. The schools never were more efficient. The young foreigners who go into the law take naturally to the fine and stately traditions of the Essex bar. If the enormous increase in Catholicism has modified the religious life and practice of the city, it must not be inferred that that ancient faith has not itself undergone certain important modifications as it found itself face to face with the integrity, moral inflexibility and high mental outlook of the traditional religion. It is a youthful Catholicism growing up in an ancient Puritan state. The first effects are naturally startling to those whose horizon is no larger than that of the Puritan vision and to whom Anglo-Saxondom is synonymous with the Kingdom of God. But it is steadily producing the coming American who will unite, as he already does begin to unite, the best traditions of his Catholic heredity with the largest and most commanding influences of his Puritan environment to the greater glory of both.

The conditions described as existing in Salem hold in almost all the cities of the same class. Pawtucket, in Rhode Island, with its great mills, Bridgeport, Waterbury and New Britain, in Connecticut, Manchester and Nashua, in New Hampshire, Burlington and Rutland, in Vermont, illustrate exactly the same movement. In Cambridge, Massachusetts, the last few years have seen such a steady growth of a distinctly non-New England population that the predominant influence of Harvard University and its adherents has not only been seriously threatened, but of late years has been more than once successfully overthrown in the city elections. The Brahmin class which Holmes made famous in literature still exists, but it is rapidly disappearing, and where it does exist it is no longer the ruling factor in the communal life.

Industrially these changes are producing some very interesting results. A leading hardware manufacturer of New Britain whose works I was inspecting, being asked who his principal competitors were, informed me that his principal competitor was a German in St. Louis. Asked as to the future competition, he placed his hope of success in his more enlightened labor, though another manufacturer in the same city said that his labor was steadily being transformed, the American or English-speaking portion being progressively eliminated. In the great mills at Manchester and Worcester and Pawtucket and New Britain and Waterbury, the Germans, Swedes, Armenians, Greeks, Poles, French-Canadians and Syrians have all but possessed the establishments. The result of all this upon the religious and moral life is to produce modifications by the side of which the Half Way Covenant was child's play. In one leading New England church there are actually Sunday school libraries maintained in six different languages other than English,

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and these are the libraries most patronized by the school. The isolated simple morality of these cities thirty years ago has given place to the new complex situation which has raised questions for the children of the native stock of which their fathers did not even dream. The interplay of race traditions not only modifies moral conceptions, but in many cases has broken down entirely certain fixed conceptions which were supposed to be necessary to religion itself. Church-going, which in the smaller cities of New England was a condition necessary to respectability twenty-five years ago, is to-day not only not necessary, but in its place Sunday evening home parties have become common among the people of native stock themselves. A year or two ago a well-known officer in a leading Congregational church in one of Boston's most beautiful suburbs advocated at a church conference the abolition of the Sunday evening service because people wished to visit with each other at their various homes on Sunday evening.

URBAN NEW ENGLAND

It is not generally understood that while New England has but one-sixtieth of the total area of the United States it has almost one-thirteenth of the population and that most of this population is urban. Nor is it any more generally known that of the 1,340 manufacturing cities in the country, one-fourth are in New England. More cities properly so called are to be found in the area of the New England states than in any other similar area anywhere in the United States, and President Eliot is in the habit of declaring that eastern Massachusetts is the most highly organized region in the world.

But these cities are "New England" only in name and have few of the characteristics which are commonly associated with the region in which they are located. Beginning with Boston, it may be said that the Boston of two generations ago is disappearing so rapidly that even the inhabitants are astounded at the rapidity of the change. The first great element of transformation is that which is indicated by the religious changes. The traditional religion of Boston was congregationalism of some kind, either the Orthodox Trinitarian or Baptist or Free Baptist or Universalist or Unitarian, which all have essentially congregational forms of government and in the matter of polity represent the democratic ideals of early New England applied to religious administration. Boston was the congregational capital. To-day there are not half a dozen of the type standing on secure foundations in the city proper. Those which do have a permanence either have large endowments or hold sites which have so increased in value as to make it possible for them to move elsewhere, though for these latter the most perplexing thing is to find a place to go. Park Street Church lately tried to sell its plant, but the Congregational leaders are agreed that there is no spot within the limits of Boston where without injustice to some other church of the same order it could go. The group of South End churches, Shawmut, Berkeley Temple and Union, are all so changed in character and so dependent upon temporary conditions that not one of them may be said to have a future. The pastor of the Warren Avenue Baptist Church in the same region is a wealthy gentleman who has for the last five years given his church $3,500 each year. The Mt. Vernon Church in the Back Bay region for years had its financial problems met by a single individual who has lately passed away. The Tremont Temple Church, a great democratic institution and one of the most useful in Boston, was for many years sustained in a predominant way by a single individual whose death has materially altered its prospects. When Dr. Minot J. Savage after twenty years of pastorate left the Unitarian Church of the Unity to go to New York, the church was disbanded and the building sold to German Lutherans. The Columbus Avenue Universalist Church, the church of Hosea Ballou and A. A. Miner, is kept alive only by its vast holdings of property in the center of the city, while the Old South is financially secure from the same cause. The older Unitarian churches of half a century ago have entirely disappeared.

Thus it is seen not to be a movement of theology or creed but a type of life and ideals. On the other hand, the Episcopal diocese of Massachusetts has lately been divided because of its growth and the eastern half has now as many communicants as the whole diocese had when the

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present bishop was consecrated ten years ago. The growth of the Roman Catholic Church has been so great that Boston can fairly be called a Catholic city. The statement was made a few years ago, in the midst of an election controversy in which religious prejudices had a large part, that "at noon Boston is Republican and Protestant and at six o'clock it is Catholic and Democratic," alluding this way to the presence for business purposes of the Protestant suburban population during the day and their absence when the real Boston went to bed at night.

The ideas and ideals which go with this change in the religious expression of the population apply with almost equal force to every city in New England. It is true of Worcester, of New Haven, of Hartford, of Providence, of Lowell and of Springfield. The latter city possibly shows less movement in this direction than any other, but the statement in general holds. The natural political counterpart of this movement is everywhere seen in the increasing assumption of the control of the cities of the first class by the legislatures of the states. Everywhere the tendency is away from the old-time democracy for which New England is famous in history and literature. State commissions of one kind and another everywhere are supplanting local and self-government. The concomitant increase of political corruption and the use of money for political purposes, while not exploited here as in New York or in Chicago, is often relatively as great as in these centers. It is less than ten years ago that a New England statesman, now in the Senate, filed under the statutory requirement a statement that it had cost him $17,000 to be elected to Congress in a district that could be canvassed in ten days successfully. Urban development has carried in its train the progressive abandonment of the democratic ideals in ecclesiastical government and political government alike. In no single thing has New England changed more than in this respect. Boston may serve as the type for the rest of New England and with slightly varying conditions the cities already named show this form of development.

There is less independence in the city of Boston in political action at this moment than in any first-class city in the country. Reform, contrary to the general supposition, makes slower progress in Boston than in Chicago, and the mobilization of public opinion to take decisive action on admitted wrong is a simpler task in Chicago or New York than it is in Boston. Causes gain currency and endorsement largely through social influences, and these to a constantly increasing extent are so intermingled with political hierarchies of one kind and another that they are often strangled before they are born. The most striking evidence of this fact is seen in the endeavors to govern Boston, the election methods of which have been changed on the average every two years or less within the last decade. The present legislature of Massachusetts has had before it several new propositions to meet emergencies which have lately arisen, like the election to the Board of Aldermen of a man under indictment by the federal grand jury and the nomination by popular vote, on the opposite ticket, of a negro with a semi-criminal record. In connection with this nomination the most amazing fact is that although the man's record and personality were perfectly known throughout the city by reason of the fact that a few years ago, being then unknown, he was elected a member of the Executive Council of the Commonwealth, he received the largest and most emphatic vote from the cultured, wealthy and aristocratic Back Bay Ward, which is said to represent the most compact and centralized body of New England hereditary blood and culture in the city!

The cause for these and many kindred manifestations lies in the moral and intellectual transformation of the city, in which it merely exhibits on a large scale what we have seen to be taking place in the small cities and the rural regions, yet in the midst of all this flux, the power of the historic development and traditional life prevails as a modifying though no longer a supreme force. The old New England of homogeneous population, of settled and fixed habits of life and of determinate ideals of character and education, is gone, and in its place is a new New England fronting the composite, industrial, interrogatory civilization of the twentieth century. Its intellectual solidarity and isolation have given way, and it is facing with all the rest of America the common problems of our race.

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SANTO DOMINGO, THE HOME OF REVOLUTION

BY

SIGMUND KRAUSZ

AUTHOR OF "TOWARDS THE RISING SUN," ETC.

IT would be a hard task to sift the truth about present conditions in Santo Domingo from the mass of misstatements, exaggerations and absolute untruths that have filled the columns of newspapers and magazines in the United States ever since the latest turmoils in the unhappy island have called the attention of the American government and public once more to the unsettled condition of Dominican affairs and to the responsibilities involved by the upholding of the Monroe Doctrine.

Much of the matter printed has been contributed by writers who evidently had gathered their material from encyclopedic sources and interviews with Dominican exiles in this country, but who had never seen the island. Other articles were written by natives and were colored according to whether the author was a partisan of Wos y Gil, Jiminez or Morales. Reports from Santo Domingo itself have been contradictory and unreliable, and even in the neighboring islands of Porto Rico and Cuba the real state of affairs may be only guessed at.

During my late sojourn in Porto Rico, before going to Santo Domingo, I tried to pick kernels of truth from various interviews with men supposed to be thoroughly familiar with Dominican conditions, but this too proved to be a hard task. The men interviewed had either too great business interests at stake to express themselves openly, or were too much influenced by political partisanship to give an unbiased opinion of prevailing conditions.

Thus the former consul under Wos y Gil, Señor Felix Matos Bernier, in San Juan, could see nothing promising for the future of Santo Domingo in the advent of the Morales régime. He thought the whole population was against the head of the provisional government who had installed himself in power through his temporary military successes, and prognosticated the ultimate return to power of General Jimenez, his predecessor, who early in April had left San Juan for New York with the probable intention of restocking his exhausted store of arms and ammunition. When I called Señor Bernier's attention to the determination of the United States government to prevent the export of war material from the States to Santo Domingo, he thought that such could be had elsewhere, and that Uncle Sam would benefit more by taking sides with Jimenez than with Morales. Regarding the recognition of the Morales government by the United States, after the visit of Assistant Secretary of State, Francis B. Loomis, to Santo Domingo, Señor Bernier expressed the opinion that the latter's visit had been far too short to make his report of any value. As to the question of annexation, the people of Santo Domingo, if this should ever be contemplated by the United States, would forget all party strife and unite in the effort to resist by force any such attempt. In this effort Bernier was sure that the Haytian republic would join, as the annexation of the eastern part of the island by any big power would jeopardize its own independence.

Señor Miguel S—, an influential merchant, with interests in Santo Domingo, expressed himself practically in the same way, although in more reserved terms, while other men, supposedly fully as wel acquainted with Dominican affairs, were of opinions diametrically opposed to those of Señors Bernier and S—, and saw in the advent of Morales the saving of the unfortunate island.

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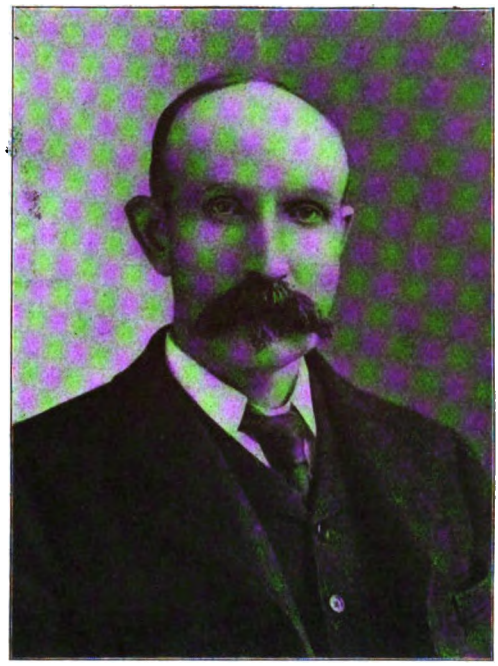
It was only after my landing in San Pedro de Macoris, from which port I proceeded to the capital, Santo Domingo City, that I was able from closer personal study and information, gained from native and alien sources of all description, to unravel the maze of contradictory opinions and statements, and to get anywhere near the actual condition of the present political, social and economical affairs of the republic.

After enjoying, or rather suffering, since 1844, when the republic was formally proclaimed, a succession of innumerable military dictatorships, presidencies and provisional governments, it seems as if, at present, the outlook for lasting peace and a stable government is better than at any previous time. This favorable state of affairs has been brought about partly because the citizens of the republic, with the exception of the professional disturbers who have engineered the last eight or ten revolutions since the assassination of President Heureaux, in 1899, are heartily tired of the continual state of unrest which prevents the slightest possibility of commercial and agricultural development (industrial growth is not even in sight), and partly because the United States has, at last, shown some determination to stop conditions which, in the end, would be bound to involve this government in serious difficulties with some European power.

A favorable augury is furthermore justified by the fact that the head of the present provisional government, Carlos F. Morales, is a strong man and patriot who, in a personal interview with me, expressed his determination to give the country the lasting peace of which it stands so sorely in need. His position is much strengthened by the recognition of his government on the part of the United States; and the probability is that Jimenez, Wos y Gil, or any other general who might contemplate a new revolution in Santo Domingo will, under the circumstances, recognize the futility of such an effort before actually embarking in an enterprise which Uncle Sam will not tolerate.

Under the circumstances the United States has no need to come actually to the support of the present and recognized Dominican government by landing marines in the island, and the report that



ELADIO VICTORIA,
Minister of Public Instruction

this has been done was a canard. All the evidence of martial American interference, if it can be called such, is the presence of the gunboat Detroit which I saw peaceably anchored outside the harbor of Santo Domingo City.

It is to be hoped that these conditions will not materially change, and that Morales will be able to preserve the peace which has been bought by much bloodshed.* This would put him in position to execute his program of honestly and economically managing the financial affairs of his country in order to begin satisfying the most pressing demands of the foreign governments to whom it is indebted for sums aggregating $25,000,000. The inauguration of this policy would tend to do away with the complications that now threaten to affect the independence of Santo Domingo and prevent the possibility of the United States landing troops and taking charge of its customs.

From what I have seen and learned, the latter emergency would be sure to be followed by serious trouble, as the popula-

*According to the latest developments peace has at last been brought about by the surrender to Morales of the last revolutionary troops near Monte Christi. This favorable result is the outcome of mediation, by the commander of the Detroit, between the warring parties.—EDITOR.

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A FUNERAL SERVICE IN THE CATHEDRAL, SANTO DOMINGO CITY

tion is inclined to regard such a method of interference as a forerunner of annexation. While the Dominican government may not look at it in the same light, it would certainly furnish ambitious and dissatisfied leaders with a good pretext to start new revolutions.

The chargé d'affaires, Mr. Powell, who expresses his length of service in Santo Domingo not by years, but by a chronology of revolutions, of which he has seen five in the country to which he is accredited, and three in Hayti, believes that the present government is destined to be stable and that, while it would oppose annexation, it would, if necessary, accept a protectorate of the United States with a treaty along the lines of that with Cuba.

The only people in Santo Domingo who would welcome an annexation to the United States are the foreign plantation owners and export merchants, and, perhaps, some large native landowners whose property thereby would gain immensely in value. But they regard Morales as an able man and believe, at least, in the sincerity of his promises, which, if fulfilled, would also tend to increase materially their security and prosperity.

Infinitely worse than the present political conditions of Santo Domingo is the social and economical state in which its people live, and it will take decades of good government to improve this sad state of affairs. The country, one of the most beautiful of the Antilles, has been laid waste, neglected and depopulated. Immense stretches of fertile land in the inte-

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rior lie fallow, plantation buildings crumble to pieces, of crops only what is absolutely necessary is raised, and even the towns, with the exception of San Pedro de Macoris, which is new, look as dilapidated as if centuries had passed over them without an attempt at repairs or cleansing.

The harbors of the island have been, in many cases, allowed to fill up; wharfs and warehouses are rotting, and where a century or two ago dozens of richly laden merchantmen were floating and discharging valuable cargoes, to-day one may see only a few old schooners tugging at their anchors.

Traveling in the interior is almost out of the question. There are only a couple of small railroads; one under American control from Santiago to Porto Plata, and another, English, from Sanchez to La Vega. The few highways that formerly traversed the country have disappeared, overgrown with bush and forest. For many years narrow trails, passable only for saddle animals, have formed the communications in the interior; the number of cattle and horses has been steadily decreasing, and it seems as if the latter, specially, were getting scarcer, as riding steers are much in evidence in the country districts.

In Santo Domingo City itself, with the exception of the plaza, on which stand the old cathedral and the handsome statue of Columbus, the traces of the many bombardments the city has undergone are visible in many streets, and the capital looks deserted. There is no sign of business activity, and a large sugar refinery on the opposite shore of the Ozama River, as well as an American brewery at the outskirts of the town, have been abandoned. There are some car tracks, warped and rusty, in the streets, but the horse cars which, a legend says, were once running over them, have disappeared, no one seems to know where. The money of the republic is so debased that a Dominican dollar, said to contain traces of silver, is accepted only for twenty cents in American coin, which is current all over the island.

Regarding the claim of some writers that the half-breed population of Santo Domingo entertains a thorough racial hatred against whites, and that travelers of the Caucasian race are exposed to insults and danger in the interior of the island, it is my opinion that all such assertions are grossly exaggerated. It has been my experience to find all Dominicans with whom I have come in personal contact exceedingly polite and obliging, and while it is true that this experience has been confined almost exclusively to a better class of natives and that my knowledge of conditions in the country districts has been largely gained from miscellaneous information, I may safely assert that the conditions of travel in the island, aside from physical discomfort, and as far as actual safety is concerned, are not worse than in any of the other West Indian islands. On the other hand, I have been told, not only by foreign residents of the republic, but by natives themselves, that the morality of the population leaves much to desire, and that missionary work in this direction could accomplish much good. It is quite a common thing for Dominicans to live in concubinage for years and to raise families before resorting to the church sacraments for the purpose of legalizing the offspring. Nor is such a *collage*, as the French call it, followed by social ostracism or even loss of social prestige.

A sore subject of conversation with a Dominican is voodooism, and the reticence of all classes to give information on this point leads one to believe that there is truth in the horrible stories of the survival of fetish worship in the remoter districts of Santo Domingo which have been related by recent writers. I am inclined to doubt, however, that voodooism, even among the most ignorant and degraded classes of the rural population, ever takes the form of human sacrifice and cannibalism, as has been frequently asserted, although I am not prepared to deny absolutely the possibility of such a sporadic occurrence when religious fanaticism among degenerates on certain occasions, is roused to savage frenzy.

As to the population of Santo Domingo all estimates regarding numbers are simply based on guesswork. There has never been an official census taken by any of the governments, but there seems to be no doubt that not only has no increase taken place in many years, but that the number of inhabitants has been steadily reduced

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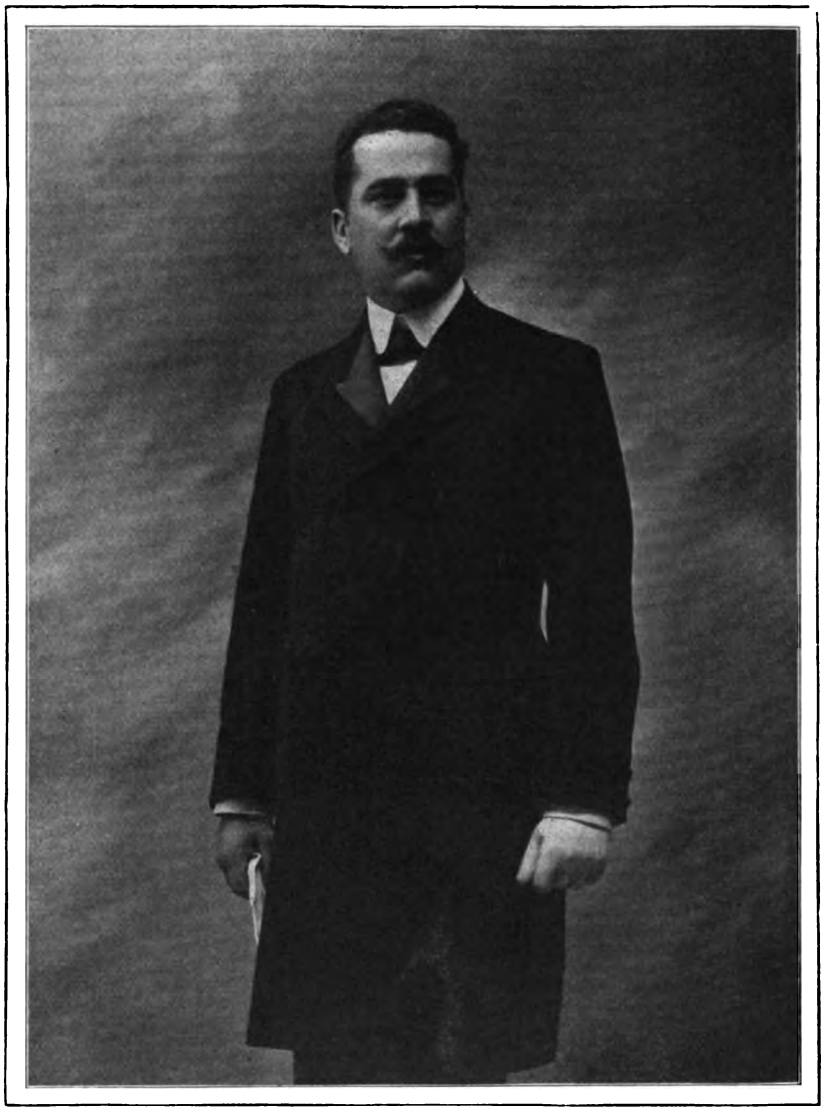

CARLOS F. MORALES, PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF SANTO DOMINGO

during a man-wasting period of fighting. Any estimate between 300,000 and 600,000 may be correct.

The means of communication to and from Santo Domingo are, at the present time, exceedingly limited. Unless sailing vessels or tramp steamers are used, one depends almost entirely on a single steamer of the Herrera line, the Julia, which makes a monthly round trip between Havana and San Juan, Porto Rico. This steamer line, having a practical monopoly, as far as Santo Domingo ports are concerned, exacts outrageous prices for transportation, in return for which passengers are privileged to eat food steeped in garlic, to be waited on by stewards reeking of garlic, and to sleep in bunks and to walk on decks that are permeated with the odor of garlic and cattle.

In view of the considerable export of sugar from the foreign-owned plantations, which still amounts to about fifty thousand tons a year, it seems to me that the establishment of a periodical freight steamer service with passenger accommodation between American and Dominican ports, ought to prove profitable.

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THE PRIVATE SCHOOL IN A DEMOCRACY

BY

ARTHUR GILMAN

PRINCIPAL OF THE CAMBRIDGE SCHOOL

THE flower of democracy is its men. How shall it be insured that a succession of noble men shall be kept up? The fathers of New England thought that education was the means to be used for this purpose, and the nation has come to the same conclusion; but the sort of education and the manner in which it shall be carried on remain to be discussed. Charlemagne decreed that education was necessary in order that intelligence might rule the empire, and the same note has been heard in all ages.

The first requisite of the early New England schoolmaster was that he "should be sound in the faith," and the first New England college was founded in order to raise up a godly ministry. The parents and masters were the earliest teachers in that part of the country, and it was not until it was found that many of them neglected to train their children in "learning and labor," that the state took up the business of education. The first schools there were private schools, and when the state took up the work it was not intended to make a great divergence from the original, for the pupils were a homogeneous collection of boys, and the separation of the state from the Church had not yet been thought of. Judge Story, of the Supreme Court of the United States, says that the first settlers of New England "clung, as to the ark of their safety," to "the necessity of a union between Church and state," and it was their intention that the school should be a means of cultivating and continuing the particular form of religious faith and practice that they wished to see permanently established. The public school without religious instruction, without the study of the Bible, was entirely beyond their imagination.

The influx of immigrants, from other lands than England, of persons having different religious faith or none, has led to one great modification of the character of the schools sustained by the state, but it has not brought about any limitation of the right of citizens to carry on independent schools in which religion may be taught after any creed whatever. The teaching of religion, at first the greatest and most important function of the teacher, has been taken quite out of the domain of the school sustained by the state, and it has been of necessity carried on by the private school or not at all. Education, at first left entirely to private initiative, has been so largely taken up by the state that at the present time when the word education is used, public instruction only is meant in almost every instance. In the latest encyclopedia there is no title,

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"Private Schools," and in the educational gatherings the subject of their maintenance, direction and management is seldom discussed. In that great gathering in 1903, when 35,000 "educators" met in Boston, there was no discussion of private schools, and the same is true of the St. Louis meeting in 1904. Yet the secretary of education, in his report for 1888-1889, shows that twenty per cent of the pupils in the cities that he was able to get statistics from were in private schools. Probably ten per cent of the pupils the country over are not under the management of the public authorities.

In the year 1889, there was a strong effort made in Massachusetts to put the private schools under the control of the state. The following assertions were then made in behalf of the effort: "Parents should be prosecuted for sending their children to a private school, however good." "The state has sovereign power over the education of the young"; the "state is above the conscience of every individual"; "In the state, as the center of supreme civil authority, inheres the right to centralize public instruction. . The state is sovereign." Even the then secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education, in one of his reports, said: "The teachers hold parental relations to their pupils, and the pupils the relation of children. . . . The elementary education of all the children of the state should be communicated in public common schools organized and directed by state authority." The subject had been carefully discussed previously, but the board had been obliged to acknowledge that "the laws of Massachusetts give the parent a free and full choice between a public and an approved private school for children." Though this was said, evidently with emphasis on the word "approved," and though it was asserted that "the state will win," because it was believed by the board that "private enterprise can not long compete with the power and resources of the commonwealth," it was also said that the movement in favor of private schools was not to be met "by restrictive legislation," but by such "improvement of the public schools" as would oblige parents to send their children to them.

The question was thoroughly discussed and finally settled. Private schools abound in Massachusetts, in spite of the fact that those supported by the state are of a high order, probably inferior to none elsewhere. It seems to have been agreed that it would not do to enact a law that would intervene between the citizen and his church, between the parent and his child, under the guise of educational provisions; to adapt a policy that was held, by some at least, to be wholly foreign to the spirit of our democratic institutions. It would be difficult to show that allegiance to the state demands that parents should of necessity send their children to schools established by the state. It may be said that the state supplies water also, but there is no prohibition hindering a citizen from using Apollinaris or boring an artesian well. Some municipalities supply gas, but he who prefers a tallow-dip is quite free to use it, or he may use electricity if it give him greater satisfaction. The principles of democracy allow a man to wear the best clothes that he can afford in spite of the fact that some fellow citizen is not able to equal him in this respect, or he may wear the worst if he wishes. There is no doubt that the industry of supplying the public with clothing ready made has greatly improved the appearance of the community in general; but no amount of benefit in this respect obliges a man to hesitate to have his coat cut to the measure of his own particular body, if his taste leads him to think that his appearance will be improved in that way. Any effort to restrict citizens in these respects may be characterized, as the Massachusetts effort was characterized, as an attack on patriotism and Americanism, and it would not be permitted to succeed.

If we examine the reasons why parents send their children to private schools, we can not fail to see the great opportunity that the other schools would gladly have, if they could, but which seems quite beyond their grasp. A manager of a school agency quoted in a journal devoted to the interests of public schools, says that "the ideal of the public school is scholarship, and of the private school, culture, which covers scholarship, manners and uprightness of conduct." Another gives it as his opinion from experience with many persons seeking teachers, that private schools are much more careful in choosing teachers and demand much more of them than

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public schools do, or can. The average member of a school committee has not been trained to select teachers. He is able to set examination papers, or to have them set, but there is much more necessary, much that no examination paper can reveal, and it is something that can not be produced in court or given in evidence when reasons are demanded. A Massachusetts teacher came to me a few days ago seeking employment in a private school. She said that she taught in "the ninth grade" in a school near by, had some thirty pupils under her and was obliged to give instruction in all the subjects that they had. Poor private schools may in some cases have large classes, and they may ask a teacher to conduct classes in more subjects than one, but they certainly do not oblige her to spread herself over so many as this. It is of course beyond doubt that a teacher is stronger in one subject than in another, and that the best interests of the pupil demand that she should not be permitted to "teach" a subject that she is obliged to "get up" as she goes along. And yet, public school teachers have often told me that they are obliged to fit themselves in any new subject that the committee ordains shall be taught. Such teaching must be shallow and often false.

Nature teaches us the advantage of variety. No two blades of grass are alike; no two grains of corn. The public school authorities seem to believe that men can be manufactured and turned out by an educational machine, much after the Chinese scheme, but as Professor Laurie, of the University of Edinburgh, has well said, "Variety, inequality and strife seem to be essential to the true life of the higher races." Perhaps it is impossible to carry on the system of public schools in any way but the present, and yet it is Superintendent Shearer, of New Jersey, who protests most emphatically against "the Demon of Uniformity," which, he says, "makes pupil-drivers out of those who, but for it, could be teachers in deed and in truth." When all the pupils in a grade are forced through the same course, it is worse; when all the schools in a town or city are made to submit to a course made for the so-called "average" pupil, the harm is immensely increased; and when a whole state or nation is held down to a single system, the result is incalculably disastrous, except, perhaps, to the "average pupil"; though it would be difficult to find that particular boy or girl of whose existence and traits we so glibly talk. The president of Harvard College says: "The pretended democratic school with an inflexible program is fighting not only against nature, but the interests of democratic society." Reasons are given, it is true, for putting solid masses of boys and girls through prescribed and inflexible courses of study, but as yet none has been found convincing to the parent thinking of his own child, or the private school director, who believes that there is a fundamental diversity, mental, moral and physical, willingly recognized in all other relations of life. The president of Princeton University gives voice to the feelings of these when he asserts that "uniformity is deadly."

What are some of the reasons given for the "lock-step in education," the destruction of individuality? Let us look at them. "It is economical." There is a certain sum of money appropriated and the charges must be kept within the limit. That is a reason for placing thirty, forty, fifty pupils in a single room under a single teacher; but it forgets that it is not for the teacher nor for the parents that the school is established. The boy, the girl, is the one for which the school is carried on, and it is his or her interest that ought to be sought, at whatever cost. If I pay $250 for the instruction of my son in a private school when it costs the city but $50 to fit him for college each year in the Latin school, it is because there are advantages in small classes and nearness to the teacher in one school which can not be had in the other.

Another reason for the prescribed course of study and the massing of pupils, is "convenience of administration"; but that is not the interest of the child. Again, it is said that "examinations are more easily arranged"; that is what Mr. Shearer calls "the Examination Fiend"; shall it stand to obstruct the progress of my child? Again, it is urged that if the pupils are formed into units of classes it is easier to "keep track of them," but that is an assertion that the ease of the teacher is paramount to the right of the child to get the best. "A smaller number of teach-

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ers is needed," is another fallacious argument but it also puts money in opposition to the interests of the child. "A better show may be made when exhibition comes round," says another. This is an insidious and deathly reason, and it brings up the difference between the mechanical teacher cramming facts to be displayed at exhibitions, and often worth nothing at any other time, and the real teacher, whom Mr. Shearer speaks of, who has been quietly and effectively training the mind. The parent, untrained in the ways of the pedagogue, can not distingush between the two sorts of teachers, and, in fact, the mechanical teacher always has the advantage over the honest, plodding, hidden one who is developing the child's mind, unless the parent is unusually discriminating. A last reason is that with large classes and a fixed curriculum the teacher has fewer lessons to prepare, but as has already been seen, we are not to work for the benefit of the teacher and his ease; the child is the object, and the interest of the child alone. It seems to the person who has studied the private school that these reasons should have no weight, and it is certain that in the properly organized private school they are not recognized.

It has been held as an argument against the private school that it is an asylum for the dull, the maimed and the halt, impossible of improvement in public schools, with a sprinkling of the rich and snobbish. If this were true, it would be an indictment of the public schools; for these classes have as good a right as any children to the education provided at lavish expense by the tax-payers. If the public school can not manage these, why can it not? If it can not, why can the private school accomplish the feat? If the dull pupil is the test of the teacher, the public school that turns him over to the private school must confess to failure. The cause for such a failure is found in the reasons alleged for the prescribed course of study just mentioned. Every private school has brought to it, from time to time, pupils begging for admission, because, as the parent says, they have been labeled "dull" or "stupid" by the public school. It is often found that this diagnosis is not correct, that the pupil is neither dull nor stupid, but merely badly taught; that the necessities of large classes and the lack of time have made it impossible for the teacher to open the child's mind. The true teacher accomplishes this opening, and astonishes the parent by showing that the child has been maligned. In the march of the large classes through the curriculum, the public school brigade is obliged to leave its weak and wounded on the field, until such time as some Red Cross knight from the private school passes that way and takes compassion on their forlorn condition. It is unnecessary to add that the genius is as likely to be left behind as the really dull. It is not safe to go as far as Professor Jowett and say that "education is the grave of the mind," but it is safe to assert that many men who have made their mark have done it in spite of the schools.

When the parent reads the criticisms of the public schools published by the enlightened men who know them best—those who are carrying them on—he looks to the private school for help for his children. When he reads the discussion of the subject before the Legislature of Massachusetts, he is confident that there is a place for the private school in such a democracy as ours. When he goes to Professor Boone's history of "Education in the United States," he believes that private schools are essential to the best interests of the people. Professor Boone tells us, though he gives but scant place to that portion of his subject, that the public school, almost without exception, grew out of the private school. He adds that it is to private initiative that we owe the first manual training school, the first kindergarten, the first emphasis on science, the first art schools and galleries, the museums, libraries and reading-rooms, the earliest surveys and explorations, the first study of and instruction in agriculture, the first Indian, Negro and Alaskan schools, the instruction of girls and the higher education of women. The parent thinks that when "education" is mentioned it should have some reference to private schools. Mr. Boone asserts that the country owes it to men and women of public spirit that all of these lines of advance were started because the community as a whole would not undertake them. Does it not follow that private initiative, so important at first, should be continued for further development?

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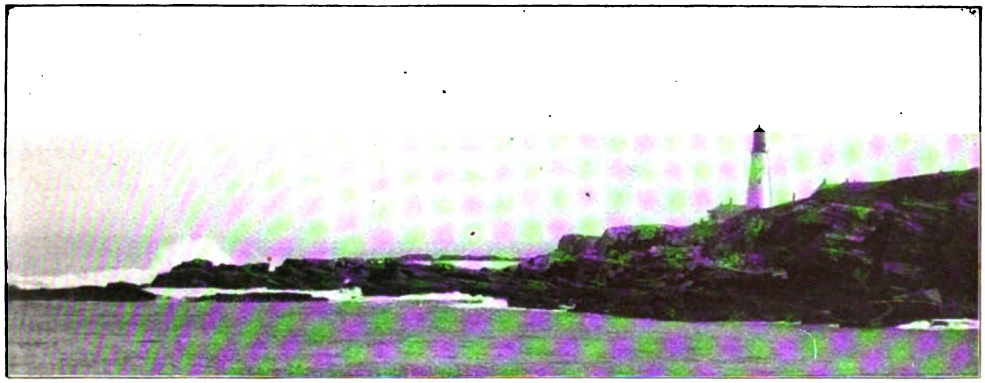

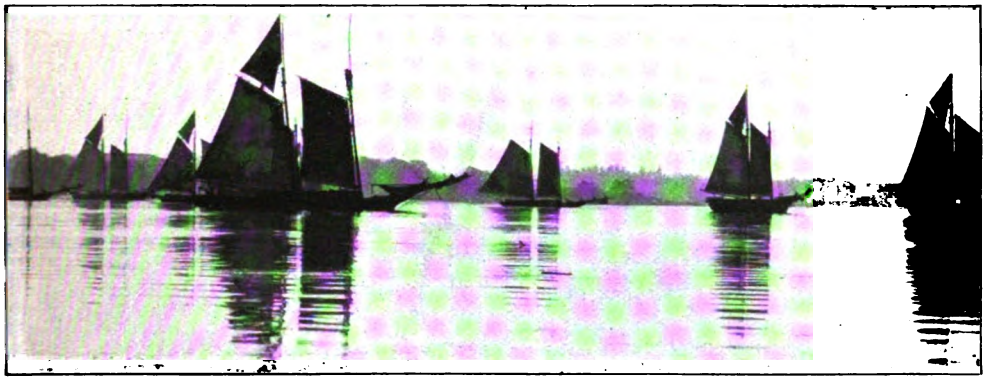

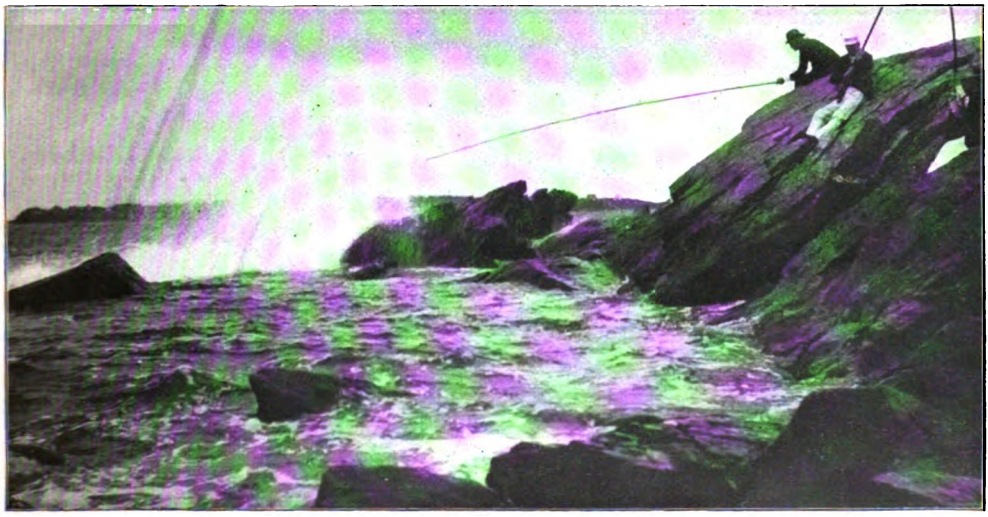

ON THE MAINE COAST

Portland Head Light — Coasters at anchor — Fishing on the rocks

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THE COUNTRY WHERE THE SHEEP AND CATTLE MEN ARE RIVALS
Land like this is ruined for stock by a season of sheep grazing

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SHEEP-HERDER VS. COW-PUNCHER

BY

HENRY F. COPE

"WHY don't you run a band of sheep?" said one to a man who was figuring on many different "propositions" in the West.

"What do you take me for?" came the swift and almost angry reply. "I'm no sheep-herder; I'm a white man yet, I hope."

This conversation took place well on the other side of the Missouri, and fairly well represents the attitude of the seasoned stockman toward the sheep business.

"Why don't you go West and get into sheep-raising? There's money in mutton and wool."

"I suppose there must be money in it; but it's too risky for me; I've no fancy to be eaten up alive by wild cowboys," answered the man in the East. And one was left to wonder how it happens that there are so many sheep men since the westerner so despises them and the easterner thus shrinks from the perils of their occupation. Nevertheless there are nearly fifty millions of sheep in the United States, producing over three hundred million pounds of wool each year, and more than half are in those states which constitute the real West, on the other side of a line drawn from Bismark, North Dakota, to San Antonio, Texas. In this territory there are about thirty million sheep feeding, with a production of over two hundred million pounds of fleece wool, creating a value, when scoured, of over $40,000,000. Setting the sheep down at an average of $2.50 a head, we have stock worth $75,000,000, earning nearly $40,000,000 each year, not to mention the natural increase from lambs, feeding on the ranges of the far western states. It is worth while to notice also that official reports show that, with remarkable uniformity, and despite the cruder conditions, the western fleece grades up much finer than the average of the eastern states.

Where there are dollars there are men; it is certain that these sheep are not without herders and owners; some one is still in the sheep business in the West, and in it for reasons that ordinarily appear sound to a business man. Not all having been killed off or scared away they are on the western ranges for reasons other than those of their health, healthy as the occupation usually is. Despite the cowboy's

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A FLOCK OF 6,000 RANGE SHEEP

The sheep are grazing as they move, stripping every particle of vegetation, as is shown by the land back of them and that in front

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threats they are living in their cabins, their wagons or their tents, because there is no other way of honestly making money faster.

It is no uncommon thing for a man to start in with a band of one thousand sheep and in a very few years to become the owner of bands aggregating forty to fifty thousand, the increase representing his clear profit. With fleeces averaging seven pounds clear and running from fourteen to seventeen cents a pound, it can easily be seen that there are strong reasons for staying in the sheep business once you get settled therein. But a man needs to have backbone or there are plenty who will forcibly present persuasive reasons for getting out of the business, so persuasive that many have not even waited to sell out.

The State of Montana has the largest production of wool, having nearly forty million pounds to her credit. It is in this state and in Wyoming that the business is making the greatest strides, and here that the greatest interest in the live question between the different classes of range feeders centers. There is a marvelous difference between the little lamb that Mary had, or the score or so of gentle fleecy creatures in the orchard of the East and the immense bands that feed on the western benchlands. A man buys several thousand head of sheep; they are run through a corral, painted with his sign and then driven off to his feeding ground, the sheep-herder (never "shepherd") usually riding behind or before or anywhere else, horseback, and the whole band held together by the activities of several trained collies. Slowly they mount up from the valley into the foothills, up on the great bench lands, or perhaps still higher, to feed in the coulies well up on the slopes of the Rockies. Bands are kept all summer, and, in many cases all winter, at elevations of six thousand feet; in fact, one band has wintered a thousand feet higher than this. The lambing time comes between the seasons of snow and of rain, and only then do the sheep need shelter.

A MEXICAN HERDER AND HIS DOGS

The herder may live in his wagon, a unique house on wheels, in which, by means of lockers, closets, fold-up and take-down appliances, one may live with

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AFTER DIPPING

all the comforts of a commodious city apartment, be absolutely free from its distractions, and quite at liberty to move from place to place, without the formality of a lease. The herder may live in a tent; but he is just as likely to sleep right outdoors, rolled up in his blankets and tarp'; it may be that, where the feed is uniformly good, a rough cabin with some outlying shelters will be erected. His duties are very simple; he must take his band, day by day, where there will be sufficient feed and water; he must keep them banded together and must protect them from wolves and coyotes. In fact, his duties are altogether too simple; the stories of herders driven insane by the loneliness and monotony of their lives are seldom overdrawn and only a few out of many are told.

From day to day and week after week he may go without seeing a single human being, nothing but sheep, sheep, save his almost human dogs, and scarcely a sound in all the great treeless waste, save the incessant, monotonous, distressing baa-aabaa of the band. Who can wonder that, when night falls and these sounds gradually die down to silence, the herder, resting in the sweet relief, suddenly rises in anger to slay the foolish sheep whose untimely voice would start the whole band into the noise that has oppressed the day? All over the sheep country in the mountains you may see what are locally known as "herder's monuments"; they are piles of stones which have been slowly gathered by the herders and built into fantastic forms, the attempts of the men to save themselves from the insanity that comes from perfect idleness. Frequently they find the bleached bones of a man on the bench lands, a herder who has yielded; whose mind has given way under the strain of the great wastes and the life with the band; who has shot himself. His band has wandered away, dropped over a precipice, or coalesced with some other band.

It is not strange that the cow-puncher despises the sheep-herder; it is a feeling having deeper root than the competition for possession of a grazing ground. The herder lives his lonely life, one man to a great band of senseless sheep; the puncher lives with his companions, frequently a large number of them, in charge of restless cattle, the care of which may at any time call for all the courage possible to a man. His life keeps him active; his whole day is passed in the saddle; the swift movement across the wide-open range brings perennial exhilaration. His companions are men, a horse and cattle; his occupation develops quick, resourceful courage. Talk to him of the herder and you will quickly realize that he esteems him as of less account than the Chinaman or even the Indian; his world is apt to divide itself, as one expressed it, "into men and sheep-herders."

Coöperating with this natural antipathy and tending to perpetuate and intensify the long and terrific contest of the bench lands there is the fact of the conflicting interests of the sheep-owner and the cattle-owner. The man of beef not only hates the man of mutton, he fights him; and his fights have been with the weapons of flesh and blood, and not with those of warrants and wires, with warrants of lead rather than of paper. This

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A SHEARING CONTEST

conflict is an entirely different thing from a hard feeling or a difference of opinion between neighboring farmers, or between conflicting interests in agricultural communities, matters which may be fought out in a court of justice. The sheep men have been almost as anxious as the cattle men to keep their differences out of the courts, frequently because both were trespassers on the ground they were using. Doubtless this unanimity of purpose to keep out of the public eye accounts for the meager knowledge generally possessed of this warfare. Now and then one may read that "trouble is brewing, or has broken out again, between the sheep men and the cattle men on the Big Muddy," or "on the Sweetwater"; but just what the trouble is and how it is being brewed, or how it will be settled, is not told; the daily, having no facts, wisely refrains from furnishing them.

But there are facts. Sheep men estimate their losses at fully half a million head every year; this means a direct loss of $1,750,000. The cattle losses have been by no means inconsiderable, while the loss of life on both sides is something appalling. It would be impossible to furnish all the facts of this conflict in the many places where it wages, for it has been long continued, it has covered a very wide area, has involved an immense number of persons and has resulted in immeasurable suffering and loss.

Perhaps a few incidents, or chapters, in the struggle will serve as samples of the whole, it being remembered that there is scarcely anywhere in all the West a stretch of bench land or feeding ground that has not been at some time the scene of just such conflicts. A few months ago, down in Wyoming, the cowboys of a certain section gave warning to several herders that their presence in that region was no longer desirable, and that after a specified date they would be held to have no rights there at all. The herders ignored the warning and continued to graze their bands. The day came and nothing happened, and that night they corralled their sheep, confident that the warning was nothing but a bluff. They had just turned in when a band of a dozen cowboys came riding in on them, yelling and firing their revolvers and generally mixing things up, until the herders were started on a run and were kept moving until they were out of the state. The rest of the cowboys who had not followed the herders busied themselves with the five thousand sheep in the band. They drove them as rapidly as possible across the plain to the brow of an immense cliff and continued to drive them until every one of the harmless creatures lay dead at the foot of the cliff.

The plan of driving the sheep over a precipice is not an unusual one. Others are shooting them down wholesale, poisoning by various devices or killing the dogs and breaking up the bands. A company band of sheep, eight thousand in number, was driven into Colorado, despite many warnings. Before many days had passed a troop of fifty masked cowboys took the herders by surprise, bound them, worked all night with gun and knife until they had slaughtered every one of the band of sheep, and then headed the herders out of the state. Frequently, in all these states, the herders refusing to move, have been

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SEPARATING OLD SHEEP AND LAMBS

shot down in cold blood by lone men and the bands left to wander or speedily despatched. Anything to be rid of the sheep, is the cry. In Colorado the number of sheep thus slaughtered is set down at sixty thousand every year, and the number is not much, if indeed it is any, less in the other states.

Sometimes more peaceful methods are tried and often with success. In one great "basin" long devoted to cattle feeding, certain adventurous ones planned to bring their sheep to graze. The cattle men met quietly, agreed that there was no room for sheep; threatened to use any means to keep them out; organized themselves into what was practically a trade union, promising to trade with and support only those merchants, ranchers and men who would boycott the sheep business. Their organization was so thorough and so intense that they succeeded at that time and bid fair to keep on succeeding in excluding the "hoofed locusts."

Meanwhile, the sheep men have not been as meek as their charges. There have been reprisals. A short time ago one of the herders of a very wealthy sheep man along the line of the Northern Pacific was warned that he must move his sheep before a certain date or he would be shot without further warning by a man detailed for that purpose. Being a good shot, the herder, refusing to move his bands, took with him into the open his trusty Winchester. When the day set came there came also the duly appointed executioner. The herder expected him; he got the drop on him, and, taking no chances, shot him dead.

Last fall a band of sheep men were seen moving along together, every one of whom was armed with a new Winchester. On inquiry it was learned that the night previous there had been a raid by cattle men, following the usual warning, in which some of the herders were fatally injured. They were now out looking for somebody to kill; and, for a while, it looked as though there would be a long drawn out and bloody feud, for the interests were wealthy and about evenly divided.

A strange incident occurred very recently at one of these raids. The wife of one of the sheep men recognized the voice behind one of the attacking masks as that of her own brother. This being reported led to his arrest and through him, one after another, a dozen men were taken by the sheriff. This case is still under trial.

One herder, who was injured in a raid in which all his companions were killed, took a vow of a life's vengeance on all cowboys. He would steal behind them, now in one place and to-morrow in another, shooting them down as they had shot his friends, until his very name became one of terror among the men on the plains. He was at length killed; but there are others who still have his spirit, with the same reason, and though less systematically none the less determinately pursue the same vengeance.

But these deeds of violence have root in something deeper than a mere sense of antipathy. What is the charge against the sheep that they should not have the same rights of the open range as the cat-

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tle? Why is it that the coming of sheep is so much dreaded, that the most violent measures to prevent their aggressions are readily pardoned by all the old settlers? There is, first of all, the fact that the cattle men were on the feeding grounds first. They naturally resent all invasions of new types as a native might resent the landing of a foreigner. But the cattle man makes charges more serious than that the sheep owners, the flock masters, were late in claiming their rights to the common lands. They charge first that the sheep destroy the feeding possibilities of the range. They crop so close, they eat together in so close formation that where a band of sheep has fed the ground looks as though a blight has attacked it, or as it might appear in the train of an army of locusts. Those who have followed sheep do not wonder that they are often called the "hoofed locusts." Sheep eat everything in sight, grass of all kinds, young twigs, pine shoots, all vegetation, so that a countryside is left without protection from the baking heat of the sun, and the last result is the killing out of the food itself. Some cattle men charge the injury as much to their trampling and cutting of the ground with their hoofs as to their close feeding. It is certain that, just as in the matter of feeding, they differ here greatly from the work of cattle. A steer leaves no mark on dry grass; but sheep, with their hoofs like a pair of little hatchets, cut into the soil and tear it up, often rooting out all vegetable life more effectually than any machine ever devised by man has been able to do. It is commonly held by the cattle men that beef and horses will not feed on ground scented with sheep droppings. The probability is that the reason cattle refuse the feeding grounds after sheep is that the sheep leave so little, and spoil the little that they do leave so as to make even that unfit for food.

THE MAN WITH THE GUN IS GOING TO HUNT COWBOYS

As for the rancher, one of the most abominable things he has against the sheep man is the practice of "feeding a settler out," as it is called. This means that a herder who, while working under the flock master's orders, is himself frequently apparently half crazy and wholly irresponsible, will drive his sheep right up and hold them all around a settler until every twig of vegetation has disappeared. Then working out, gradually widening his circle, he will use all the possible range until the settler is left

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stranded on his little holding, helpless because he is without convenient range. He has no legal redress, for the land that is not patented is everybody's. It is not strange if he, and his neighbors who have suffered in the same manner, make certain laws for themselves and put them into execution.

The personal character of the herders constitutes a large part of the problem. With exceptions, they are men who would not be counted as desirable citizens anywhere; the occupation does not attract a better class. Many of them are "greasers" from Mexico, and, in the eyes of the rancher and cattle man, all are ignorant, lawless and careless. They are charged with the greater number of forest fires, though truth compels the statement that many such fires are started by careless campers, especially tenderfoot campers, who leave the embers of their campfires still alive when they desert the grounds. But whenever a rancher sees a forest fire and thinks of the loss it means to him through the devastation of nature's reservoirs in the underbrush, he lays the blame on "some careless herder."

The sheep are accused of encroaching on the forest reserves and there eating out the tender undergrowth, the roots and grasses that protect the ground, that hold back the snow in winter and the rains. Under such treatment the forest begins to look like a city playground with a few bare trees left standing and ere long these forlorn trees must die and the whole country suffer through their disappearance. Perhaps if the ranchers had been as much concerned about the magnates who steal whole sections of the forest reserve, converting it into lumber and that into cash with which to fortify their citadel of attack in Washington, if they had trained their guns on their Senators and Representatives, they would have a larger forest area and less fear of failure of rainfall than is their's to-day.

A MEXICAN HERDER'S CORRAL

The whole problem of the sheep on the cattle ranges is one that will not settle itself or grow less as time passes. The range is rapidly becoming smaller in area; great companies are absorbing it; some are stealing it and fencing it in; large sections are being redeemed for homesteads by irrigation; and, at the same time, the number of those dependent upon it is increasing rapidly. It can not be hoped that the course of time will make either cattle men or sheep men less covetous or more conciliatory. Since these open ranges belong to all the peo-

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ple it is a question which the federal government will probably have to settle in the end. The settlement will come by the setting aside of certain sections for certain kinds of grazing. It would be better to give up the grazing of one-fourth of a state to sheep than to have them feed over the whole of it and leave it worthless. A limit will be set to the irresponsible grazing of sheep. In all probability an ultimate result will be that sheep will be more generally and carefully fed in fenced pastures instead of on the public range. Indeed the time must come when our common land for grazing purposes is little more than a memory, as has come to be the case in England. This fact serves to accentuate the cattle man's grudge against the sheep; he can no longer see before him illimitable ranges to which he can go when his present ones become outfed. He, too, may have to feed within fences. The hated, much-maligned fence, often the very marrow of the bone of contention, may yet prove to be its solution. Feeding within fences will result in the cultivation of the grazing grounds. If they belong to a man he will seek to conserve his own interests by making them as productive as possible. There would also result a marked decrease of losses from wandering and the numerous other perils of the open range, a lessening of expense of care and tending and an improvement of the stock which would more than offset the disadvantages which appear at first.

Many stockmen realize these things. Some fence in without waiting for the formalities of claiming desert land; others are constantly adding to their fenced possessions, and always with a remarkable improvement in the land as well as in the cattle. Large tracts that were once yellow all the year and thought of as beyond the reach of water are now, under the encouragement of personal ownership, as green as any pasture and capable of supporting four times as much cattle as before they were fenced in. So evident have the possibilities of this plan become that the great cattle companies are endeavoring, by making claim under the desert-entry act, to get possession of all the old ranges. And, indeed, while cattle men and sheep men fight and slay their stock and one another the real danger is that the whole of their common possession, the open range, shall pass from them and become the private property of gigantic corporations, owning the land, the stock, the stockyards, the markets and the people themselves.

FAMILY LIFE IN A SHEEP CAMP

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A MONUMENT OF THE FUTURE

BY

FREDERICK W. COBURN

WHETHER the Despradelle monument will ever become part of the world to-morrow or will continue to exist in the world of dreams, who knows? In any event it remains the most ambitious architectural project ever devised in the brain of man since the Tower of Babel began to rise. Unlike the tower that caused linguistic confusion it represents a perfectly practicable constructive undertaking, one limited as to height and designed with the expert engineer's understanding of the capabilities of building materials. All that is needed to make substance of the imaginative creation is the modest sum of $15,000,000; and it is for a bequest of that amount that Professor Desiré Despradelle, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has been hoping and praying these many months. A modest sum, indeed! As the designer of the monument will tell you, the price of three battleships, insignificant in appearance and liable to be blown to nothingness at any moment, would cover the whole cost. And this would be a monument such as the world has never yet seen, "To the Glory of the American People," located at the capital of the nation where it would express the spirit of advancement, of uplift, the continual striving after better things which Professor Despradelle, himself a French architect, believes to be the dominant characteristic of the American nation. Regarding the structure as an esthetic problem, his thought was to give to it the finest possible sense of aspiration. Every structural line, every bit of ornamentation carries the eye toward the zenith.

DESIRE DESPRADELLE,
Designer of the Monument

The plans have been so completely drawn that work upon the gigantic monument, overtopping all others that human ingenuity has ever raised, might be started to-morrow if some multi-millionaire were to say the word. Steel and Portland cement have made it possible for architect-engineers to scale heights which could never have been reached in the age of brick and stone. The Despradelle monument is designed to be between 1,300 and 1,500 feet high, according to the site on which it is placed. The volume of the main central shaft would be about twenty-five million cubic feet and the base 225 feet square at the bottom. If built solid such an imposure would exert a pressure of forty-six tons to every square foot of earth and would be structurally impossible. To erect it simply of steel would leave it liable to be blown over in a light gale. Mr. Despradelle's plan shows a construction partly hollowed out in galleries, comprising both steel and concrete, with heavy stone on the exterior, especially around the bottom. The designer has been working upon details of the monument ever since 1893, when the splendor of the White City at Chicago inspired him to begin such a project. The years are slipping by. The plans are complete. Will the dream ever become a reality?

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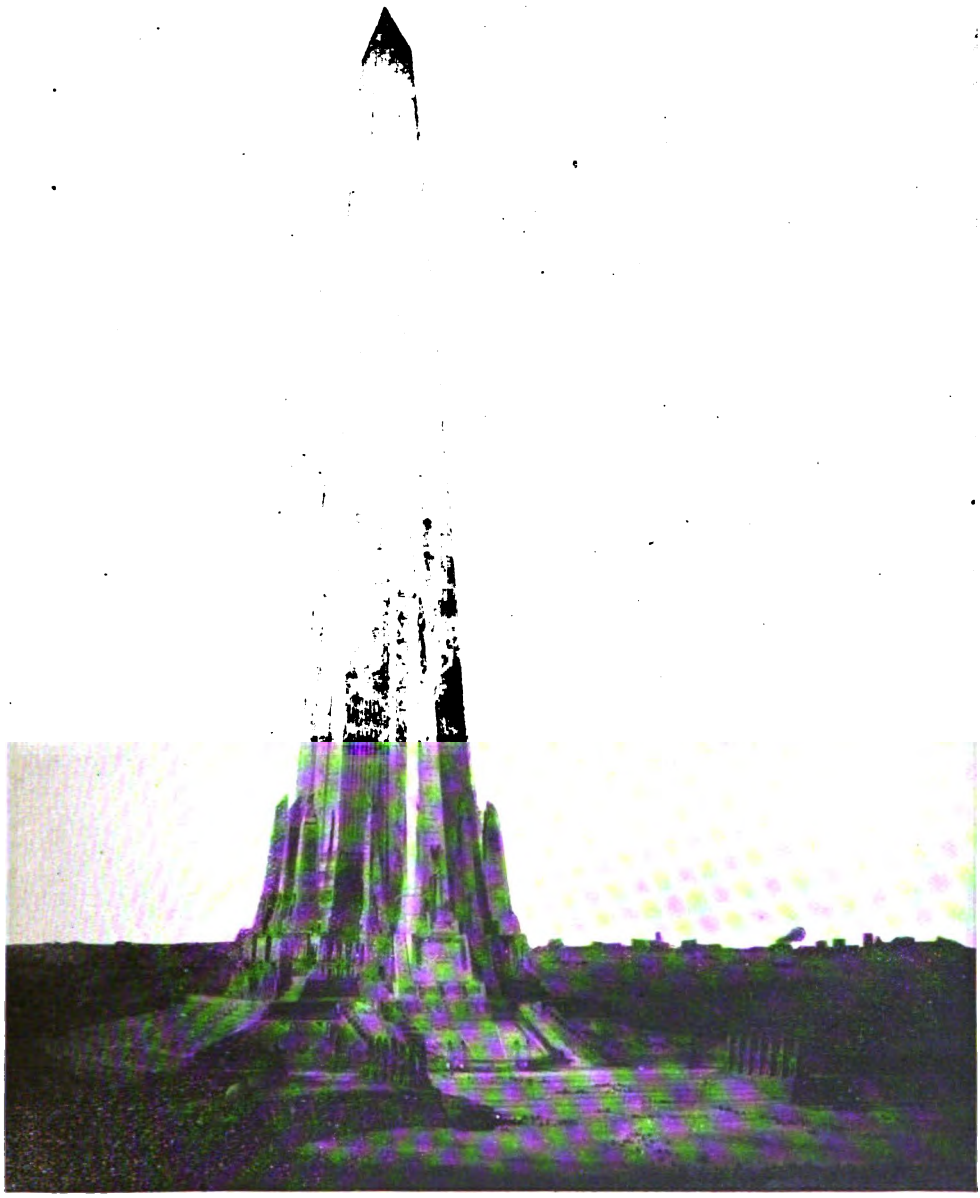

DESPRADELLE'S MONUMENT

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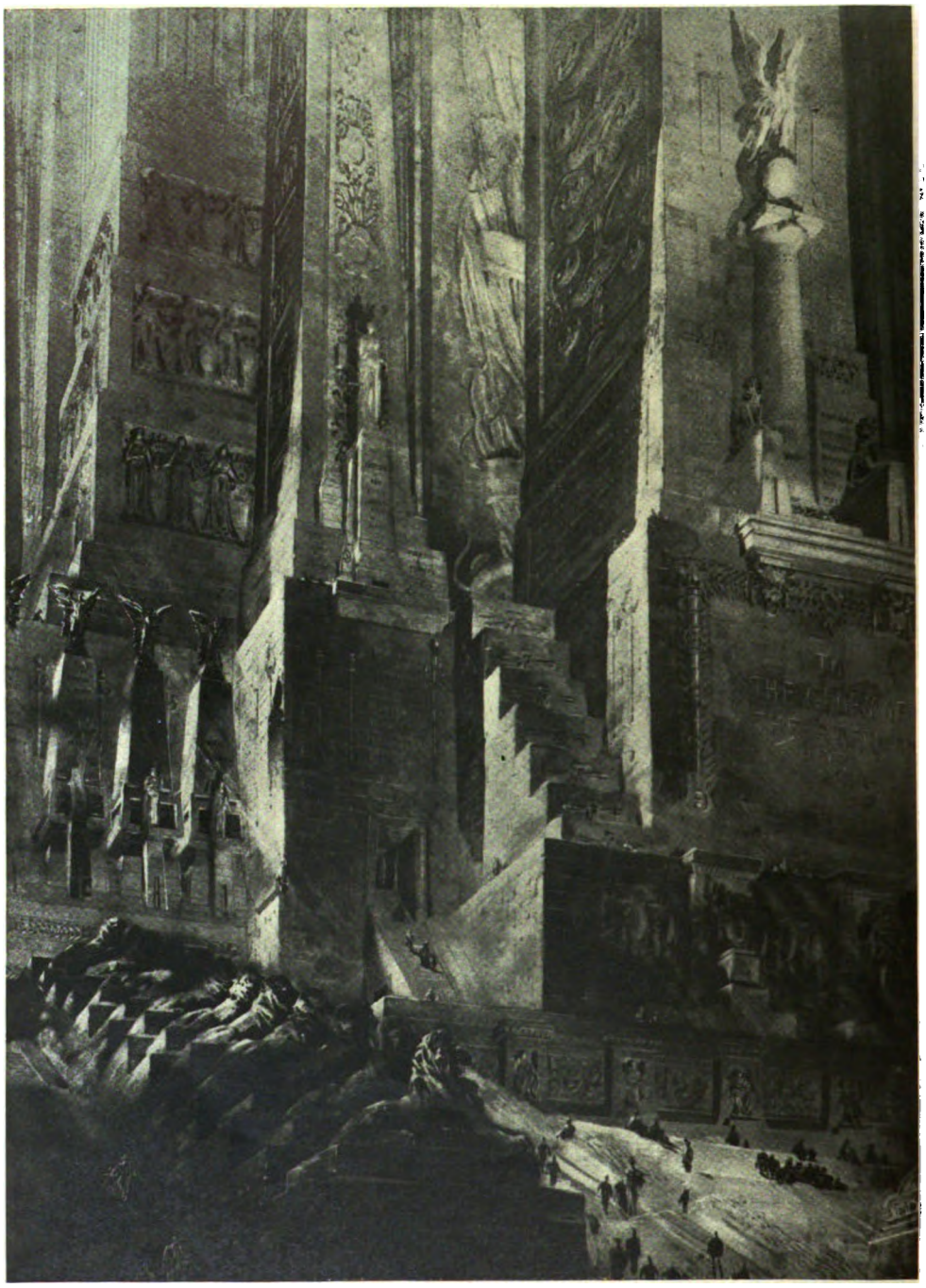

THE FACADE OF THE MONUMENT

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THE HARBOR OF ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND

NEWFOUNDLAND AND ITS FISHERMEN

BY

DAY ALLEN WILLEY

UNIQUE among the world's peoples are the Newfoundlanders. Although paying allegiance to Great Britain they form practically a distinct community and to-day occupy a far more independent position politically than the Federation of Canada, for it is a question if they are not bound more closely by ties of business and friendship to the United States than to the Dominion mainland. The independence of the little island nation, however, is characteristic of the ruggedness and vigor that have enabled it to maintain a foothold in this bleak region isolated from the rest of civilization, wresting its main subsistence from the sea, using the land merely for habitation. Perhaps no other people have had more hardships to endure, but they have not only held their own against nature but are at last winning in the struggle which has lasted for centuries.

Nearly as large in area as the State of New York, the entire population of Newfoundland numbers but 225,000—less than that of Buffalo—yet the inhabitants of the West Indies, Brazil and other South American countries depend upon the island fishermen for one of their principal food supplies. For the bulk of the dried fish shipped from St. John's and other ports goes to the tropics as the tariff has prevented its sale in the United States. An idea of the extent of the business may be gained when it is stated that a single steamship may clear for the southern market with a thousand tons of fish in her hold. In one season the value of the "catch" may aggregate $5,000,000 and a conservative estimate of the income the Newfoundlanders receive from the tropical trade is from $3,500,000 to $4,000,000.

The army of 75,000 men engaged in the cod fishery is divided into "bankers" and those who confine themselves to the bays and ocean near the coast-line. Of the

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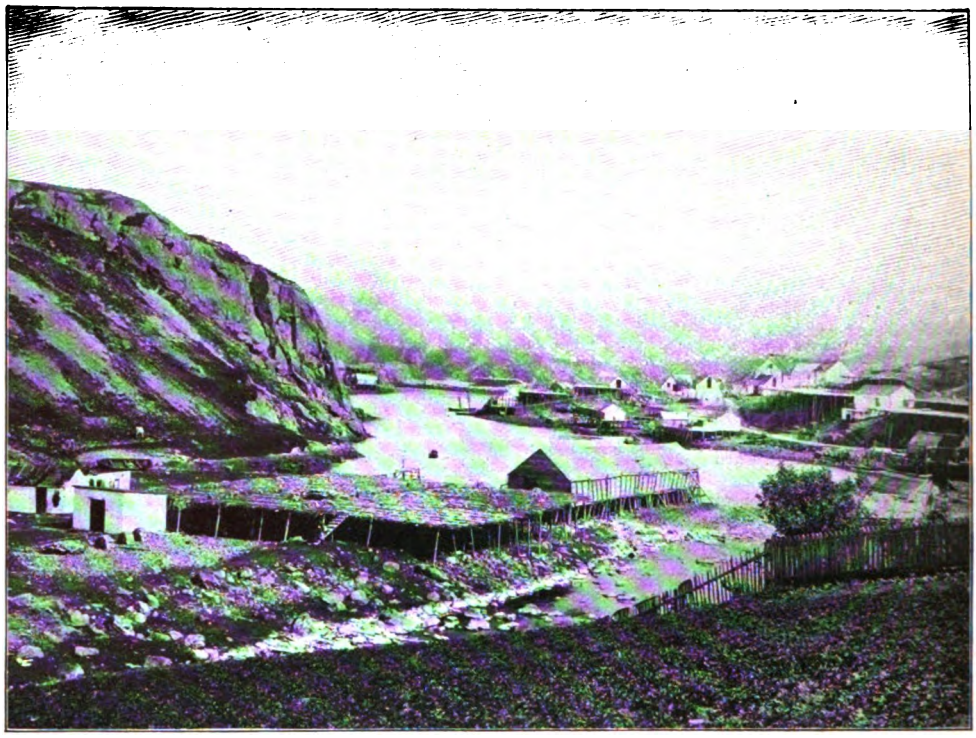
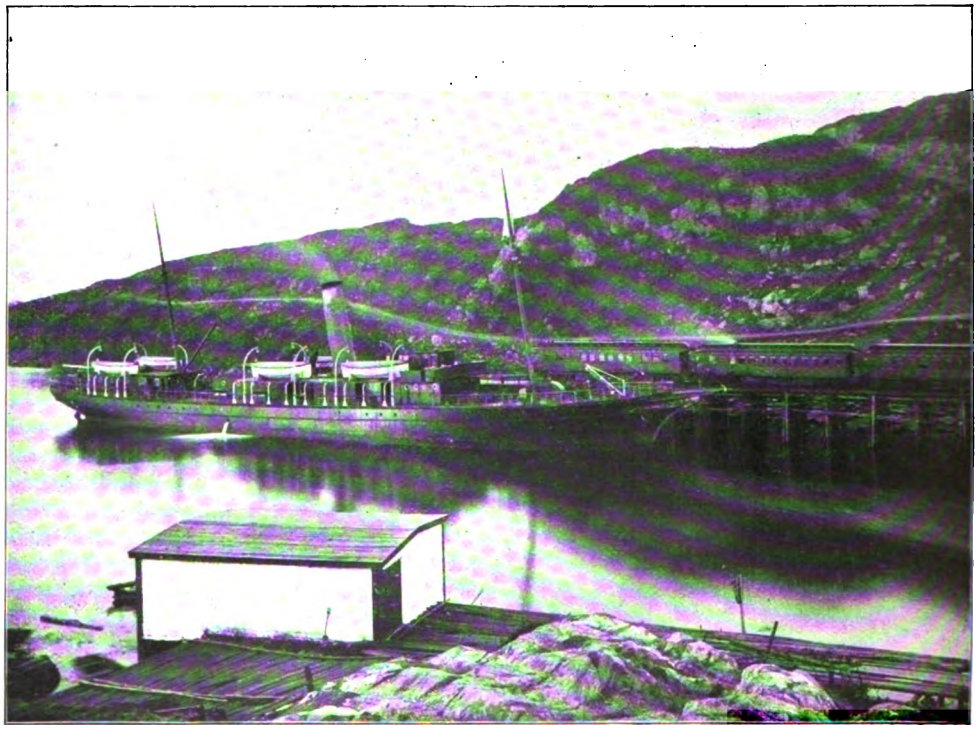


A FISHING VILLAGE NEAR ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND



PORT AUX BASQUES, THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF NEWFOUNDLAND

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thousand schooners which traverse the Grand Banks, probably a third hail from the island ports and were built in their coves from home material. They range from 100 to 150 tons burden, carrying a complement of twenty to thirty men. In working on the "Banks," the usual method of fishing is with "hand lines" from the deck, and with buoy lines, to which a hundred or two hundred hook lines may be attached, the buoy lines being pulled up and the catch secured once or twice a day. The average "banker" will carry a cargo of 10,000 to 12,000 cod of eight to fifteen pounds weight, and may fill her hold five or six times a year, returning to the nearest port to discharge the "fare" and secure supplies. The coast fishers use a variety of craft, ranging from a fifty-ton schooner to a twenty-foot boat propelled by sails and oars. The Arctic and the Gulf Streams have given the Banks the title of the "graveyard of the Atlantic," a name that the men of Newfoundland know only too well, for upon it they have sailed to and fro year after year as did their fathers and forefathers, and it is not every voyager that returns. Perhaps the "Banks" fisherman knows the risks he runs, but it is on the vast submarine plateau that the largest and finest fish are taken, and he is willing to face its dangers. And dangers certainly await him. A week may elapse when the skipper can not see the sun to get his bearings, and must anchor or drift until the fog lifts, with only the faint notes of the horn or the clang of the fog-bell to warn other craft of his presence. If a southeast gale sweeps over the ocean, he must trust to his anchor to help him ride it out. He may be late on the "Banks" and caught in winter's clutches, at last to make his way as best he can with his half-frozen crew to the nearest port. But the next year finds the trim little schooner "fitting out" at St. Johns, or in one of the sheltered southern coves. Constant battling with the sea has caused the Newfoundlander to defy its varying moods; still, familiarity has not bred contempt. No one knows better what the Atlantic means when in anger, but he prefers the storm to the mist. The one he can fight openly. He knows his chances for victory or defeat. The other is a treacherous foe, stealing upon him, silently, suddenly. He can not tell what it conceals—possibly a great liner hurrying across the ocean ferry at express train speed. Should he be in its path, the fog-bell or horn are of little avail—a crash, and his boat is out of sight or a mass of wreckage before the steamer can check her speed.

A NEWFOUNDLAND FISHING VILLAGE

There may be a thousand craft on the "Banks" in the season, and often they are driven together. Sometimes the fog covers the water so thickly that one can not peer a hundred feet into its mysteries. As it lifts, so rise the spirits of the crew, and as the ocean puts on a smiling face, the white crests of the waves glistening in the sunlight, they call cheerily to each other and sing as they haul away at the lines and pass the fare into the hold. Hours before the dark line on the horizon that marks the island coast is visible, the vessel bound hither passes the "near shore" fishermen, sometimes a hundred miles from the nearest harbor, yet riding at anchor with sails furled, or beating about in search of a fishing ground. Much frailer and smaller than the staunch bankers, these fishing craft may contain only two or three men. Some are merely open boats without even a deck, in which the men venture out for two or three days, trusting to a fair wind to bring them home

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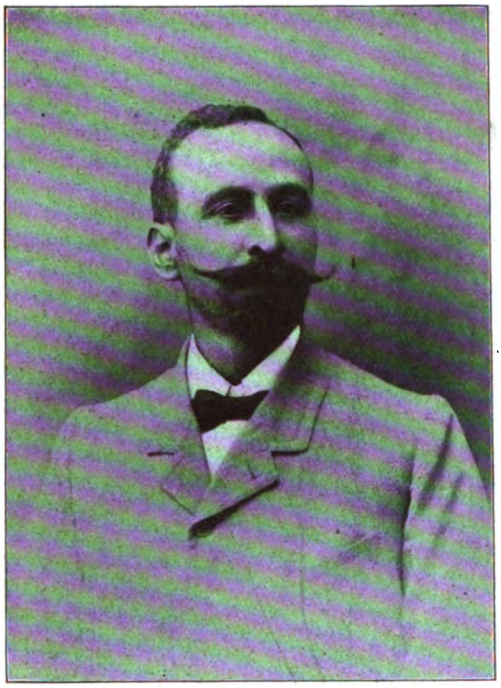

R. G. REID, NEWFOUNDLAND CAPITALIST

speedily. In their quest they are often led far out of sight of land and left to the mercy of storm and fog. They incur the further danger of being driven ashore. One may count fifty such craft in the range of vision at one time. They are not confined to any one locality. In the bays and on the open sea they sail to the east, south and west. And close by the shore are still smaller craft, some without even a sail, coming from the huge cracks which pierce the bluffs.

Few of the world's settlements are more quaint or afford a more interesting study of human nature than the little coast towns, built here and there on the rocky plateaus or in the valleys. Some of them have been inhabited over two centuries. One of the most historic is Quidi Vidi. Its settlement dates nearly as far back as St. John's, from which it is distant an hour's walk, yet now, as in the first year of its occupation, its dozen boats pass out to sea in the morning and return at night through a rift in the rocks, just wide enough to admit them. On the little band of fishers the hundred or so people absolutely depend. Their cluster of huts called homes and the modest church edifice are built on a rocky slope from which springs no green thing save a few tufts of grass and weeds, and here and there a tree. The gardens of Quidi Vidi are "flakes" on which the women and children spread and salt the cargoes of the fish boats, to cure by the aid of the sunlight. The banks of Quidi Vidi are the sheds where the cod, piled in heaps like so many slabs of firewood, represent so much money to be guarded as zealously as gold or other treasure. The cod is indeed the "currency" of Newfoundland, to be exchanged for food and clothing with the tradesmen. The other industry of Quidi Vidi is boat and sail making. So life has gone on in this corner of the world, as it has in scores of other settlements which fringe the great island. From the sea has come their sustenance, and the history of one is the history of nearly all.

The islanders are only deterred from cod fishing when floating ice makes navigation extremely dangerous with their frail vessels. Then many of those on the north and west coast enter the woods to secure game while others find employment in the copper mines and in lumbering. Each year, however, a fleet of a dozen or a score of sealing vessels leaves the Atlantic ports to engage in that fishery. They only capture what is locally termed the "leather seal" which floats down from the Arctic on the drift ice. The fleet will carry from 4,000 to 6,000 men, as each vessel takes on as many as can safely be provided for. Sailing a northerly course, whenever a floe with seals is encountered, enough men are landed from a vessel to secure them. As this part of the ocean is usually filled with floating ice during the sealing season, the entire complement of

WEIGHING CODFISH

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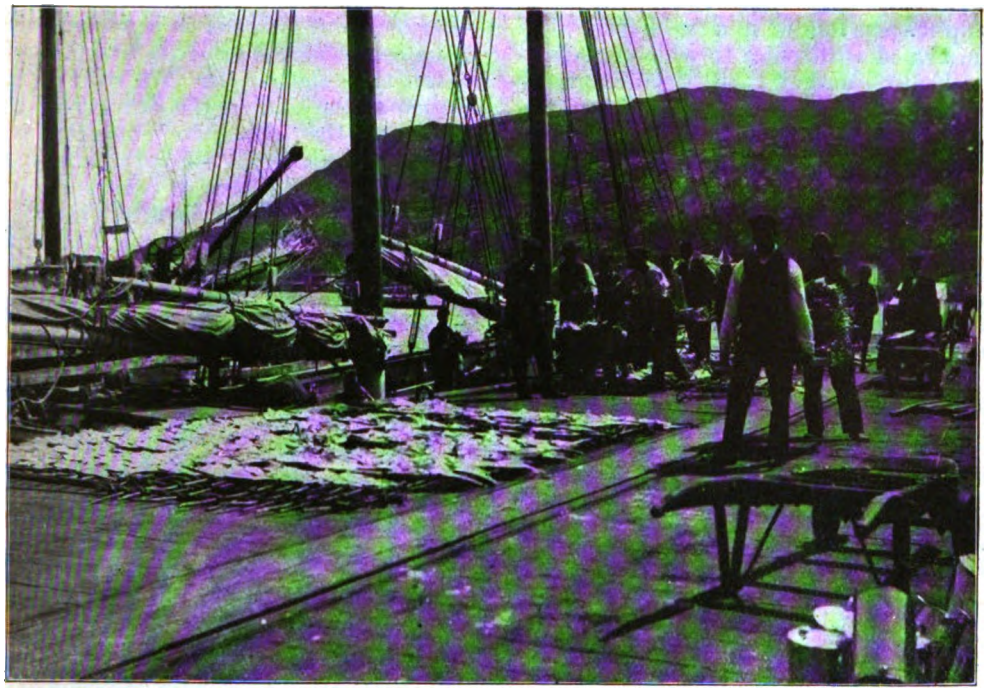
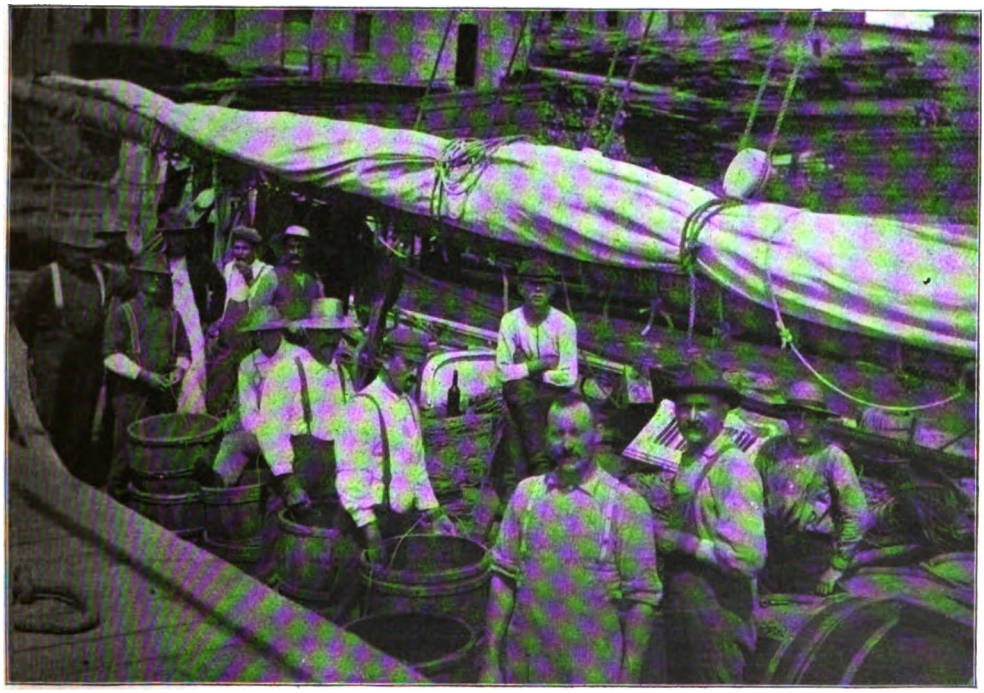


UNLOADING THE CARGO



THE CREW OF A NEWFOUNDLAND FISHING SCHOONER

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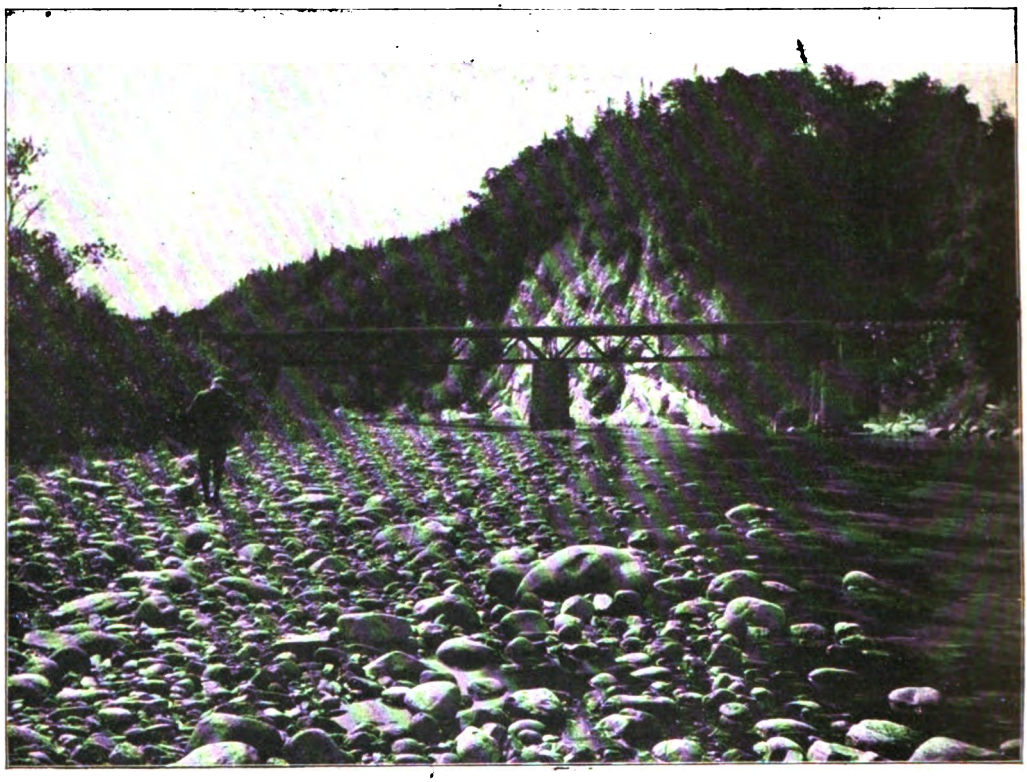
a ship may be landed in a few hours. The men, armed with poles to which are fastened heavy iron gaffs, kill the animals by blows on the head so as not to injure the skin. The carcasses are piled in heaps on the edge of the floe and taken to the ship in small boats. As the season is very short, extending from the last of March until about May 15, it is necessary to work rapidly to secure cargoes. This is why so many men are employed, and in a fair season one of the largest vessels may return with 50,000 skins in her hold, to say nothing of several hundred casks of blubber. The hide of a full-grown seal is about two by three feet in dimensions. In its natural state it sells in the local market at from $1 to $2, while the blubber yields an oil valuable for lubricating and medicinal purposes. Yearly several hundred thousand skins are sent to the United States packed in preserving brine in casks. Here they are tanned into leather for pocketbooks, satchels and other articles.

Perilous and arduous as is the vocation of the cod fishers, that of the seal hunters is even more dangerous. We read of the courage of the soldier, the bravery of the miner and the locomotive engineer, but none of these take the risk of death in as many forms as this band of islanders amid the Arctic seas. The perils of the ice-fields are neither few nor small, and the hardship and exposure are such as only men of iron nerve could endure. But these men are so accustomed to the floes and the sea that they seem to have an absolute contempt for their terrors. They leap from cake to cake where it would seem a child could hardly be sustained, and think little of passing a night on the ice far from the steamer. Should a fog or a snowstorm set in, there is a terrible risk of losing their way and perishing miserably in these ice deserts, or of falling through the openings, which are covered with snow as it falls and freezes. Sometimes the field ice on which they are at work separates without a moment's warning into frag-



ON THE NEWFOUNDLAND RAILWAY

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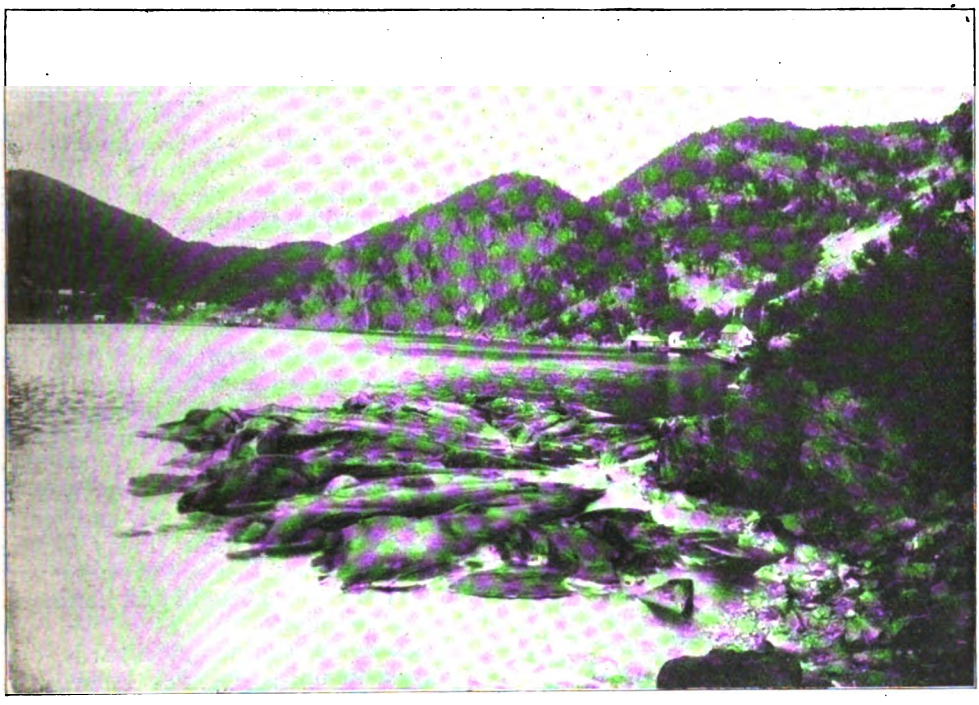
ments, and they are floated off, to perish by cold and hunger, unless rescued by a passing vessel. Such are their skill and fortitude, however, and their knowledge of the movements of the ice, that comparatively few mishaps occur, considering the number engaged in the hunt.

The greatest danger of all is when a violent storm rages, breaking up the ice-fields and driving before it the larger floes intermingled with floating fragments of ice hard as granite. When the wild northeaster rises, the great swell of the Atlantic rolling in continuous ridges, heaves the pavement of ice on its mighty folds. Speedily, by the upheaving of the waves, the ice-field is broken up into smaller pieces or floes. The whole mass opens and expands, and then the broken fragments are dashed against one another or piled in hummocks or hills of ice. At times the fragments are lifted high on the swell and flung upon the floe, thrown over each other in layers fifty feet in height. This is called the "rafting" of the ice.

Many whose ancestors followed Drake, Grenville and Raleigh out of England's west country, and were adventurers sometime in the southern ocean, are among the island dwellers. Some have descended from the survivors of Sir Humphrey Gilbert's ill-fated expedition. Devon has done much in colonizing the island, although the descendants of its pioneers have led such a different life that in appearance and speech they appear to be a distinct race. But they have not degenerated. The struggle for existence for themselves as well as for those dependent on them has increased rather than diminished the sturdiness and courage inherited from the past. Their life, despite its suffering and hardships, has tended to their elevation and progress, for it is beyond question that as a people they have advanced in civilization much more than some others who have not had to overcome such obstacles as nature has placed in their way. The true Newfoundlander loves his island home as the true Englishman loves his Sussex or his Durham, and the visitor notes a public spirit pervading every section, whether he is in the capital itself or in a northern hamlet whose people are separated half the year by winter's grasp from others of their kind.



A CATCH OF WHALES ON THE NORTHERN COAST

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THE DISAPPEARING PUBLIC

BY

ERNEST POOLE

AUTHOR OF "HOW A LABOR MACHINE HELD UP CHICAGO," ETC.

As the labor struggle grows more distinct and rises above all other issues, from every side come appeals to "the great American public," "the outside suffering public that has no use for the labor struggle and only asks for peace." Is there such a public, or is it disappearing to reëmerge as a party of one or the other of the two great economic classes, the employers and the employed?

To answer this question the public must first be analyzed.

The American public is made up of fifteen million voters and their families. Of these, seven million are farmers and farm laborers; seven million are wage earners in factories, stores, railroads and mines; one million are big employers, petty employers, professional men and other salaried workers.

THE WAGE EARNERS GROW CLASS-CONSCIOUS

In looking for a sudden change in the mind and feeling of this public we naturally turn first to the seven million wage earners and the one million employers and salaried workers in cities and towns. Here we find a startling change. In 1897 the American Federation of Labor had 265,800 members. In September, 1903, it was receiving per capita dues on 1,745,270, and this number represents at least 2,500,000, for it is an undisputed fact that in the average local unions not over two-thirds of the members are paying dues at one time. To this number must be added the 500,000 in unions like the American Labor Union, unaffiliated with the Federation. John Mitchell, in fact, claims that there are 3,000,000 union wage earners in America. These organized 3,000,000 largely control the other unorganized 4,000,000. This control they are swiftly making more effective by a process of nationalizing by trades into 113 great national unions and centralizing by cities and states. In America there are 549 cities, large and small, in which there are 24,250 local unions under the control of labor councils. How these bodies have grown may be seen most clearly by the change that has come in Chicago.

Five years ago in Chicago the unskilled workmen still suffered from the years of depression. In the sweatshops 30,000 wretched tailors bent to their machines from twelve to sixteen hours a day, giving forth in twenty years a life's vitality and receiving the squalid slum in return; 40,000 teamsters lived on bare subsistence wages and were trained for future strike-slugging by a life of endless fighting for precedence in the jam of down-town streets; 10,000 dock laborers lived in alternate stretches of fierce day and night strains and then long periods of drunken idleness; and in many other callings the workers had been weakened, brutalized, degraded. In 1900 these masses began to awaken. They saw the skilled workers, whose unions had weathered the depression, begin slowly to force up wages. They themselves were gathered on the streets at night and harangued by union organizers.

When in the Chicago stockyards, completely deunionized, it was known that Michael Donnelly had come to organize the 30,000 workers there, not only did the employers take extreme precautionary measures against him, but the workers themselves threatened his very life, so bitter were their memories of strikes in the past that had failed. Night after night on the street corners or in the Halsted Street saloons, Donnelly secretly approached man after man only to be refused, and often with bitter abuse. He followed the men to their tenement homes, and their wives in tears begged him to go away. But Donnelly kept on. At last,

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after long slow weeks of discouragement, he had fifty-five recruits, and then one night each recruit was told to come alone to a small hall up over a saloon. So secret had been the recruiting that even then no man knew what others he was to find at the meeting. In spite of this secrecy an employers' "spotter" was there, and four men who had been active in the meeting were soon after discharged. But the spark of unionism had been kindled. At the next meeting 150 flocked in and in a few weeks more a union had been formed with thousands of members. To-day the stockyards district is "union" through and through, and, as I learned from the women settlement workers near by, the most enthusiastic unionists are the very women who at first had cried in fear when Donnelly came into their tenements.

The labor union was becoming a public.

THE EMPLOYERS BECOME A CLASS

And now, in Chicago, as in other cities, the employers drew together. In June, 1902, ten of these more far-sighted employers, employing between them over fifteen thousand men, met and planned the Chicago Employers' Association. Mr. John G. Shedd, of Marshall Field & Co., struck the keynote of their policy when he publicly declared: "We absolutely refuse to allow any outside organization to interfere in any way with the management of our business." Of such interference there were many examples, for the next year saw no less than fourteen hundred strikes in Chicago. Using these strikes as stern object lessons, Frederick Job, the new Association's secretary, "the employers' walking delegate," with many volunteer speakers to aid him, went out to organize employers' unions. Mr. Job, who has done more than any other man to organize Chicago employers, gave me this instance of how recruits were gathered:

> One night we got together twenty-three cigar manufacturers at the Great Northern Hotel. I met them at the door and had to introduce them to each other, for only seven had formerly been friends. They had been fiercely competing for each other's trade, and while the Tobacco Trust, by turning a united front to labor, had wholly excluded the union from its shop, these independent employers were at the union's mercy. I told them the story of the old fur traders who settled in Chicago a hundred years ago.
>
> They competed, gentlemen. Yes, they competed even harder than you do, for at times they used guns to compete with. Now what happened? Why, their Indian workmen, organized by a long-haired walking delegate, swept down on their isolated cabins, and these traders, these competitors, who together in a fort might have beaten off the savages, were caught one by one and massacred.
>
> Now, gentlemen, here is our proposition: Is your union making exorbitant demands for higher wages? Come in with us—for we can tell you to a cent how much the other employers are paying all over the country. Are they demanding a closed shop? Come in with us and we will tell you just how many closed shops there are in Chicago and how the closed shop works out. If then you decide to run your own business and employ whom you please, we will find you loyal workmen. We will get them from Chicago, and from all the cities where our employment bureaus are stationed. If the union now refuses to work with these men, let them strike, and then what happens? You start up your shop with non-union men. They are threatened and slugged by union pickets. We at once get out an injunction against these pickets. We were the first to make this injunction work. We retain two lawyers and employ many more. One of our first principles is enforcement of the law. As the strike goes on your funds perhaps are getting low, but remember that our employers represent $150,000,000, and that many of them will gladly pay to help in a fight they believe in, for wherever one employer wins he discourages unionism and helps us all.

It is not remarkable that these proposals should have been warmly welcomed. The Association's membership swelled from fifty to two thousand. The metal trades manufacturers, the laundrymen, the brass manufacturers, the clothiers, the hotelkeepers, the team owners, the retail merchants, the coal dealers, the building contractors, and twenty-five other groups have united, and to-day in Chicago wherever the trust has not already combined employers, you will find them combined against unionism in employers' associations. And what is true of Chicago is true of the nation.

Next the petty employers flocked in by hundreds. The man who had three or four workmen saw that he must join some protective combine or go out of business. The unions pressed him hardest because he was weakest, and he could least afford to pay the higher wages they demanded, because, unlike the big employers, he could not save through improved machinery. His success depended on working long hours and getting the most out of his men through personal contact. A wagonmaker, for instance, worked in his

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little shop and employed two workmen to help him. Of these one was his son. The other man joined the union and demanded higher wages. For several weeks in that one-room shop discord reigned unceasing. The one union man was advised and controlled by his union leaders. "Through that one man," said the indignant employer, "a whole international union crowded into my shop and proposed to run my business." And when at last this man refused to work unless the employer's son joined the union, then the irate father broke away and joined the Employers' Association.

A group of retail tea and coffee dealers sell tea and coffee from house to house. Most of them drive their own wagons, but some, having more than one wagon, employ drivers besides. These drivers were recently organized into a local branch of the Teamsters' National Union, which, at its convention in 1900, expressly stated that no one owning more than one team should become a member. The dealers, excluded by the union, went the other way and lined up with the millionaire merchants in the Employers' Association.

So far the recruits had been employers of the union-smashing type. The more moderate arbitration-loving employers were next to be won over. This is fast being done by forcing the open-shop issue to the front. The cry for the open shop was first raised by the parent of all these bodies, the Citizens' Industrial Association of America, organized one year ago by Mr. Parry, the well-known president of the National Manufacturers' Association. Mr. Parry proposed to fight unionism to a finish. In his debate with Mark Hanna, president of the Civic Federation which stands for conciliating the union, he showed that the union could not be conciliated unless the employer gave up at least a part of the control of his business. He showed that the union must sooner or later bring the open shop, and this assertion was soon echoed on the other side by President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, in these words: "As the immortal Lincoln said, 'This country can not long remain half free and half-slave,' so say we, that any establishment can not long remain, or be successfully operated, part union and part non-union." The issue had now been clearly defined, and when it had been impressed by hundreds of speakers and pamphlets and journals and papers upon employers all over the country, then thousands of the arbitration lovers began coming over from the camp of the Civic Federation. As a result this Federation's conference of employers and labor leaders last autumn was not the brilliant success of the preceding year, but was, on the contrary, a bitter failure, and its proceedings were never published. For, in that conference, the labor leaders, headed by Gompers, came out strongly for the union shop, and the employers declared against it. The labor leaders maintained that wages must not be reduced in the on-coming depression; the employers declared that reductions were inevitable.

"The time has gone," I heard from one of Chicago's greatest merchants, "when we fight the unions only in time of strike, when they are strong. From now on we fight them when they are weak; we fight between strikes." Mr. Parry's plan "to form an association in all the centers of industry and unite them under one national counsel," has now become a reality, a nucleus for the employers' public of America.

THE CONTEST FOR THE UNDER MILLIONS

Far below the native American working classes are the under millions of foreign birth, ignorant, slow, with poorest standards of living, but voters, and in numbers the strongest part of the old unorganized city public.

On this mass is turned with increasing care the energy of the 1,194 organizers, salaried and volunteer, in the American Federation of Labor, which spent last year on organizing alone $60,000. The 111 national unions are adding their organizing forces. "Our fourteen salaried organizers," said Thomas Kidd, secretary of the National Wood Workers, "are directed as they travel through every state in the union, not only to organize wood workers, but to help in organizing workingmen of every trade wherever the chance arises." In Chicago the hundred thousand Italian day laborers are now being brought together by Federation organizers who have already organized the Italians in New York. The Lithuanians

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in the stockyards are gathered in by the National Butchers' Union; the Bohemian tailors, by the National Garment Workers' Union. Of last year's half million labor union recruits, two-thirds were drawn from these under millions.

On the other hand, the greatest employers in the land—the coal trust, the steel trust and the railroads, who use millions of these cheapest laborers and who must keep down their wages—strike back at the union by bringing in fresh millions of immigrants from Europe. "The immigration ring" is steadily gaining notoriety. In the nine months ending March 31, 1904, one hundred and thirty thousand immigrants have poured in from Austria-Hungary alone. Though these immigrants make the slums in our cities and the hovels in our towns, they are highly desirable to the coal barons and the steel-mill managers, just as the Italians are to the railroads. Their immigration is unquestionably stimulated and unnatural. It is promoted by the English ship trust and the Hungarian government, the other two members of the ring. While in Chicago the union organizers are spoiling the immigrants for employers by teaching them to demand higher wages, the ring in Europe is gathering more immigrants through thousands of agents who are paid so much a head to send peasants over to replace and demoralize the newly unionized immigrants. Where these immigrants come there the slum must remain, for their starved ideals and standards demand no higher living. The Hungarian laborers who make here but $1.50 a day, last year sent $30,000,000 back to Hungary. Such standards give a tremendous weapon into the hands of the big employers. Little wonder that they have so long and so strenuously opposed the bill which the labor leaders have been urging on Congress to regulate immigration by an education clause. So the war methods of each new public spread swiftly out and are reaching the Capitol.

"THE LOYAL WORKMAN" OR "THE SCAB"

In this widening struggle the "loyal" workman can no longer exist. In time of strike he must be disloyal, either to the employer or to the union; one or the other must always possess his first allegiance. To secure this allegiance the Employers' Associations are now laying plans admirable in their careful, deep-sighted conception, and brilliant in their swift and widespread execution. They see that as the labor unions increase and concentrate, as they restrain the short-sighted slugging and adopt a policy of industrial starvation instead, then the employer must have loyal men to run his struck shop, or eventually succumb to the union. Their first task is to fight the word "scab." Perhaps they had this in mind when they gave to the new association in scores of cases the name of "Citizens' Alliance." Under this name they have called upon all loyal workmen to join as free, independent American citizens. The word "scab" is replaced by the word "loyal workman," and often with telling effect. In St. Louis the non-union men have responded by thousands. "St. Louis," says the Manufacturers' Association, "is proud of her workmen."

But this alone is not enough. The free American citizen must have a job. To supply him with this job and protect him from the unions, the Citizens' Industrial Association of America, in February, 1904, started an employment bureau, and now others have been formed in Cincinnati, Cleveland, Pittsburg, Detroit, Boston, Syracuse and Worcester. In Chicago the Employers' Association is starting a bureau on an even larger scale. "This bureau," Mr. Job told me, "is to supply workmen for every trade in Chicago. It will have an office of its own and will cost thousands of dollars a year. It will be advertised at first among workmen in all the shops of our many thousand sympathizers, and so soon as the workman begins to understand that a card from this bureau helps him far more than a union card when he applies for a job in any of the shops of our two thousand members, then the workmen will flock by thousands to our bureau. As we go on we will keep the record of every man in striketime and in peace from year to year. The loyal man and the steady man will, of course, be the one preferred."

"And the man who constantly interferes with the employer's business by talking unionism?" I asked.

"That man will have no show with us,"

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he answered promptly. "But understand," he continued, "we do not discriminate against union men—"

"And yet is it not true," I asked, "that the unions will all cry down your bureau?"

"Possibly," he answered, "for they run bureaus of their own."

From this a conclusion is easily reached. The blacklist has an ugly sound; the employment bureau is to take its place. It is to be the feeder of the open shop. Through the open shop and the employers' bureau the non-union man is to be a "loyal, American citizen." Through the union shop and the union bureau he is to be a "scab," a "capitalist retainer," a "traitor to the working classes."

In either case he is a member of the employers' public.

THE PROBLEM OF THE CLERK.

At the bottom of society's pay-roll, side by side with the day laborers of Chicago, are the thousands of male clerks whose earnings average from $10 to $12 a week. To organize these unconscious members of the working classes both the employers' associations and the unions are now striving. The employers have adopted a novel method of educating the clerks to loyalty. Among the many big financial powers that sympathize with the Chicago Employers' Association, is Mr. John R. Walsh, president of the Chicago National Bank, and also (to quote the Chicago *Tribune*) "political banker, custodian of South Park, West Park and Drainage Board funds, patron of the Lorimer and Hopkins machines, and reconciler of republicanism and democracy for the control of the Drainage Board and for the enactment of suitable corporation legislation at Springfield." Mr. Walsh is the owner of the Chicago *Chronicle*, and the *Chronicle* has suddenly developed a most strenuous anti-union policy, not only in its editorials, which plead in passionate terms for the departing independence of the American citizen, but also in its labor news which, so all other reporters agree, is most mysteriously and wonderfully made. The Chicago bankers subscribe for thousands of copies of the *Chronicle* a day. Each clerk finds it on his desk in the morning, exhorting him to be loyal and patriotic. The big manufacturers, too, are heavy subscribers. I heard of one who subscribed for 1,950 copies, and another who took over two thousand for his clerks.

A still more novel plan of retaining the clerks' allegiance has been tried by the department stores. Not long ago I read the following document:

> We, the undersigned, of our own free will, sign this agreement. To work in harmony with, and follow in every instance instructions given us by Mr. ——, head shipping clerk of ————.
>
> I, ————, agree that if all the undersigned follow instructions as above set forth I will see that they get an advance in salary each six months of fifty cents a week, commencing December 1, 1903, and an allowance of thirty-five cents for supper money whenever I deem it necessary to have the shipping-room work evenings. It being understood that every one reports for duty not later than 7:15 A.M.

I saw this agreement in the hands of a well-known labor leader of the city. Not a clerk had signed it, for the supposedly loyal clerk to whom it had been entrusted had never shown it to his fellows, but had given it to the secret union of which he was already a member. So failed this admirable attempt to form a union with the employer as the walking delegate.

Meanwhile the National Clerks' Union has come to Chicago. In the banks several local clerks' unions have already been organized. Over half the postoffice clerks, hundreds of clerks in the railroad offices, all the telegraph operators of the Postal Telegraph Company and over half those of the Western Union are now members of unions. The great obstacle in the union's path here is the dislike which the well-dressed clerk feels toward allying himself with the labor bodies. Far more does this apply to the women clerks in the department stores. Only last Labor Day a local union of department store girls who work for $3 a week held a long discussion on etiquette and at last decided to parade in the labor body. They were "genteel" clerks, and the effort was not made without great spiritual perturbation. Deep then was their horror when on arriving at the starting place, they found themselves lined up behind a local union of factory girls who were making three times their wages. Remarks, polite but cutting, rapidly rose and grew more shrill and at last reached their

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mark. The factory girls rose in their ungenteel wrath, and (in the language of the *Chronicle*) "a bloody riot ensued," which left the perplexed male organizers mopping their brows and sending a boy with a can round the corner.

UNIONS WITHOUT KNOWING IT

Even more important than the clerks are the high-salaried workers and professional men who have recently begun flocking down from the narrowing neutral body into the labor union public. Among these new recruits are the three thousand ship captains and pilots on the Great Lakes, who are now waging one of the most serious labor struggles of the year. The other day I dropped in at their headquarters. In the secretary's office I found a respectably clothed, shaggy-bearded, deep-chested old sea captain, and asked him how he came to join a labor union. He jerked round in his chair. "Labor union!" he indignantly shouted in a husky voice that belonged to the waves, "who's in a labor union? I've heard nothing but labor unions from all you reporters for the last three weeks. We're not a labor union, we're an association to raise wages."

"How long have you been on the lakes?" I asked him.

"Man and boy for fifty years," he answered. "Labor union! Why, I've been a captain since '68. I ran one of the biggest boats on the Lakes, hired and fired my own men, chose my own tugs, and had a good deal to say about the cargo besides. I was the employer's agent. Do I look like a labor union?" He sputtered with indignation and then went on to tell me his grievances.

"Times have changed," he said. "Since the shipowners have combined into the Lake Carriers' Association they have put a slick, smooth-faced manager on a high salary at an office desk, and from that desk he writes and 'phones and wires to all of us, the whole three thousand. That man tells me what kind of a load I shall carry, and how much He proceeds to say how I shall load it, and then how fast the boat shall go, and if I am not up to the minute I hear from him. He hires the tug; he hires every man on my boat. If the cook in the galley spoils my dinner I have nothing to say! You don't see me come to the employer's private office now when I land—not a bit of it. I have to ask permission even to go home. Yes, sir; I have lost every prerogative I had before, and I am treated like any other employe on the boat. This is why a few years ago, after all other classes of labor on the boat had gone into the unions, our three thousand captains came together and formed, not a union, but simply an association. We are together to get back our prerogatives and secure higher wages. We average only $1,200 a year. Is that enough for a man who is often responsible for half a million dollars' worth of cargo? We can get the wages, for no one else is licensed to run a boat and it takes years to get a license. We have tied up the whole grain and ore traffic and we mean to hold out till we win. But," he called after me as I went out, "don't forget what I'm telling you—we are not a labor union!"

A week later they joined the American Federation of Labor. The strike had completed the lesson which the withdrawal of prerogatives had begun. They were employes and had joined the labor union public.

Another group of Chicago's public, fast following the same path, is taken directly from the professional classes. The one thousand skilled draftsmen who draw building plans and have salaries of $40 a week and upward, have been organized by John Fitzpatrick, the deep-voiced, broad-chested blacksmith, who has organized eighty-five thousand men and women in Chicago. It seems inevitable that just as the ship captains have gone into the Federation and are allied with the stokers of their ships, so these men who plan buildings will soon be allied with the hod-carriers around them.

Another professional group, and this the most important of all, is the Federation of Public School Teachers, including three thousand women out of the fifty-two hundred who teach school in Chicago. Their salaries average $700 a year, and as this requires several years of special training, women are fast going into other lines of work where greater returns are to be had. The number of graduates from the Chicago Normal School three years ago was 250; this year it is seventy.

"There are less than three hundred teachers receiving $1,000," said Miss Margaret Haley, their walking delegate, "and there are two thousand who ought to get it. It is a disgrace that positions so important to the city should be so poorly paid. Some years ago we started our first agitation, and the mayor recommended to the Board of Education that our salaries be raised twenty-five per cent. We then first felt the lining up of labor and capital. Certain members of the Board, who are closely in touch with the large moneyed interests, opposed the mayor's recommendation. They granted a ten per cent instead of a twenty-five per cent increase, and even this was soon after cut, so that now we are no better off than we were before. We are fight-

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ing now in the courts and will get our rights sooner or later."

"Have you never struck?" I asked her.

"No," she replied, "because the time when we were most aroused was in the summer vacation of 1900, when we could not have struck if we wished to. Had the schools been in session then I think that a strike would have been called. We are making our fight in the courts. We feel that we are fighting not only for ourselves, but for the better education of the people's children. We are affiliated with the Chicago Federation of Labor, and through their help we are striving to make the management of the schools more democratic, by making the Board of Education a body elected by the people. When this proposal was put in referendum to the voters of Chicago, they endorsed it by an overwhelming majority. We stand not only for more democratic, but for more progressive methods. We have urged continually that the schools instead of being left empty in the evenings, be used as neighborhood social centers, as they have been so successfully used in New York. This means enormous expense in the future and hence it is the labor union, not the tax-payer, that will promote it. We have begun already by passing a bill at Springfield to open the schools at night."

"Were the teachers ready to join the labor union?" I asked her, and she answered:

"We did not know that we were joining the labor union. It was simply the natural response to demands of the moment."

So the teachers are lining up with the scrub women in their buildings, and the labor union public is to direct the education of Chicago's future citizens. These groups make powerful additions to the labor public, the more so because, unconscious of what they were doing, they were driven simply by the evolution of deep natural forces.

LAWYERS AND CLERGYMEN

Meanwhile these same deep forces have worked both ways. The lawyers are joining the employers' public. Their point of view is naturally the same as his. Economically, the lawyers are often stockholders and men of property. Socially, they are friends of the employers. Politically, they are and have always been champions of conservatism. Still more important, the lawyer as he builds up his practice, naturally seeks the most lucrative work, and this he secures from the employers. As he daily fights their battles and defends their interests, it is inevitable that he gradually assumes their point of view. As their point of view now narrows into a definite class public opinion, lawyers are showing their sympathy by becoming members of citizens' associations all over the country; and this sympathy is swiftly being strengthened by the thousands of pamphlets on strikes and legal decisions against strikers, with which the employers' associations are now showering the legal profession. In Chicago I found thousands of lawyers who worked for employers; I found but one large firm that works for the labor union.

"And the clergymen? In which public do they stand?" I asked this question of Jane Addams, and she replied:

"The working classes believe that the clergyman is the employers' retainer. Whether this belief be right or wrong, it is universal and unmistakable."

I took this statement to a well-known labor leader. He at once endorsed it, and added, "I have yet to hear a clergyman who preaches the true social teachings of Christ. If he did he would condemn the big employers who have taken millions for themselves and yet keep factory girls at starvation wages, so that thousands are ruined and become social outcasts. He can not condemn them for their profits run his church."

THE RISE OF TWO PUBLIC OPINIONS

So far each side has given most of its energy to organizing, with these results in Chicago: To-day the Chicago Employers' Association has over two thousand members representing $150,000,000 in capital. It is backed by the greatest financial interests; it is controlled by a board of one delegate from each local association, and this board virtually controls the labor opinion of Chicago employers. On the other side, of Chicago's four hundred thousand active voters, two hundred thousand have disappeared into the union, and one hundred thousand more are union in their sympathies. But now as each new public grows steadily more concentrated and hence more coherent, they are beginning to educate, and two public opinions are arising—distinctly class-conscious and fundamentally hostile. This hostility is primarily economic, but as in Chicago the desire to get money has swallowed up all other desires, so this hostility, beginning over the sharing of money, is swiftly broadening and deepening, becoming social as well as economic. The strike is becoming the class struggle.

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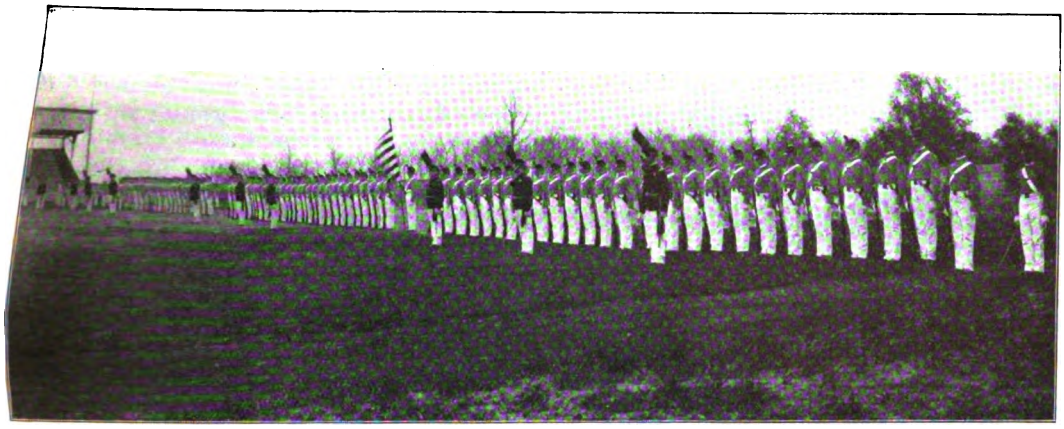

THE AMERICAN MILITARY ACADEMY

BY

CHARLES KING

BRIGADIER-GENERAL U. S. V.
AUTHOR OF "FAMOUS AND DECISIVE BATTLES," "BETWEEN THE LINES," "THE IRON BRIGADE," ETC.

EVERY year, in the month of March, there is a meeting in Chicago of, sometimes, as many as thirty men, a few of the number being old and gray, others in the full tide of vigorous manhood; still another few, eager, vehement young fellows, who only within the twelvemonth have donned the *toga virilis*. Unlike in form and feature though they may be, there is one physical trait they show and share alike. Even he who, with snow white hair and trembling hand, presided this year as senior member, stood with squared shoulders, erect, alert and in unmistakable poise—that of the professional soldier. Though garbed in the easy evening dress of civil life, the effect of long, rigorous military training is declared the instant these men spring to their feet. There is not a bent form even among those who have borne the weight of years. They are a little band of graduates of America's greatest soldier school, the school now conceded by experts of the military art all over the globe to be the first and finest in the world—West Point.

Chicago counts but few of these graduates among its permanent residents, though there are generally eight or ten to be found on duty within her limits; but between these few, the neighboring post of Sheridan, and the stations and cities within a radius of three hundred miles, it is not difficult to find each year from thirty to forty joyously mustering for the annual "commemoration banquet." It is difficult to find any who willingly remain away.

West Point is *sui generis*. It imitates no foreign school. It differs from our every college and university. It is a college that permits no secret societies, yet develops the strongest spirit of comradeship among its members, and for cause. Except possibly the sister service school of the navy at Annapolis, it is doubtful if there can be found a college in all creation whereat men are gathered from such broadly variant social planes, reduced instanter to a common level and started on their career with four years of incessant struggle for the prize and the absolute assurance that neither birth, family, money nor "influence" can in the faintest degree affect the issue. From start to finish there is no other rule than "May the best man win." Into the

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common hopper drops the son of the millionaire, the miner, the tradesman, the hod-carrier, and through that four years' grind must they go, clothed, fed, promoted or punished precisely alike. Brains and health, zeal and integrity are the only things that count. The highest honors have often been won by the lowest born. The strongest friendship has often dwelt between the strangest characters. Room-mates through the four long years have been lads reared, the one in luxury, the other in want; lads bred, one to the purple, the other at the poor-farm; lads whose sires may have been, of the one a magnate, of the other a mendicant. Once it was told we had a combination remarkable even at West Point, roommates whose fathers were cabinetmakers, one of them President. Despite all this a certain element among politicians and an equally uncertain element of the press must occasionally refer to the Academy as "the hotbed of aristocracy."

In spite of this, and not because of it, West Point has in its soldier teachings many an imitator. Even afar back in the ante-bellum days, as far indeed as those of the Mexican War, there had sprung into existence soldier schools in various sections of the country. Virginia's famous Military Institute, at Lexington, stood easily first in the South, though Kentucky fathered one that furnished many a capable officer for the great epoch of our history. Vermont maintained at Northfield its Norwich University, of which Alden Partridge, one of West Point's earliest graduates, was long the head, and here, as at Lexington, military discipline was the backbone of the course; everything else was built about it to the end that many of its alumni were commissioned and won distinction in the army of the United States, and even the navy has cause to regard it, for it was at Norwich that Admiral Dewey received his earlier training.

South Carolina had its cadet school at Charleston, New York some minor institutions along the Hudson, and all these were in fairly flourishing condition before the outbreak of the great Civil War. What soldier discipline and training can do for a lot of lads of soldierly instincts has its most remarkable exemplification in the case of Virginia's Institute in the fall of 1864, when General Breckinridge drafted the boy battalion for field service as the Union columns fought their way up the valley. Then at New Market, Imboden with his light guns struck the Union left, while the gray infantry charged the long blue line. Distancing their heavier, older comrades of the veteran regiments, the Lexington boys, only two hundred strong, dashed full tilt at the bellowing guns and, though nearly one-fourth their number were shot down in the daring attempt, actually drove the big batterymen from their posts and planted their colors on the captured cannon. Their exploit has no parallel in history.

Following close upon the heels of that long and trying war came stagnation in soldier schooling. The nation seemed sick of fighting and of fighters. The army was neglected. The navy sailed the seas in antiquated tubs, with obsolete guns. It took a decade to begin to revive interest in one and a double decade before Congress would listen to the warnings of the other. Along in the early eighties the old military schools began to add to their rolls, and new military institutes were heard of all over the land. New York, Pennsylvania, Connecticut had earlier entered the list. Michigan and Minnesota, Texas and Tennessee took heart and made their essay, close followed by Illinois, Indiana, Missouri and Wisconsin, in each of which private military schools, starting from small beginnings as a rule, were soon on a paying basis and in more or less successful operation.

The Agricultural College Act, so-called, of 1862, was designed to foster military training in our great universities, in the hope that young men generally would be induced to take a two years' course, and so be prepared for the duties of junior officers in the event of another war. The colleges with avidity accepted the great land grant. The students took hold for a time of the new toy, but speedily dropped it when they found that "instruction in military tactics and discipline" meant something more exacting than occasionally wearing a uniform and going to parade. It began to dawn upon them that proficiency in drill demanded hours of drudgery, that discipline would

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involve respectful bearing toward seniors in age or university rank, the saying of "Sir" to instructors hitherto accorded nothing better than "What," the tendering of a soldierly salute or a tip of the hat to members of the faculty hitherto passed with only a stare; even to temporary divorce from cigarette and slouching. With all his possibilities for greatness the average American boy of to-day is not distinguished for courtesy or good manners. He looks on subordination as a symptom of subservience, and upon the salute as admission of inferiority. A show of respect toward "others in authority" means to unreasoning and unterrified young America a truckling to rank and to station. He has not learned that courtesy and respect toward others, especially elders, begets respect and consideration in turn. In too many cases he has never been taught at home. With hardly an exception the colleges and universities that so eagerly nabbed at the bounty of government soon chafed under the concomitant obligation. They were glad to get the money, but they would be gladder to get rid of the drill. Even those whose annual income was increased by a fourth or fifth failed to spend for the support of the military department a single dollar of the tens of thousands thus obtained. There are some in which this condition, and worse, obtained until called to account by the government itself.

Military instruction, it may be asserted, is far from popular in the great colleges to which students flock for instruction in the humanities, the arts and sciences. It is not what they flock there for; and, even though the state provide free tuition for its sons, the latter, like free Americans, claim they should get it without reciprocal service on their part. It is not a new trait. The modern Yankee lad is no worse than was his great grandfather. Thomas Jefferson, our mightiest exponent of the doctrine of free speech and the equality of man, when he sought to curb the exuberance of the student body of the university he had founded within the shadow of his own Monticello, was scandalized to find the youth of Virginia possessed of ideas of their own and overwhelming powers of expression. The recent demonstration against the president of the university of "a remarkably neighboring state" was a zephyr in comparison with the hurricane of hisses that greeted the great leader of American Democracy. There was such a thing then as too much freedom of speech and manner even in a Virginia college and a bygone century. Small wonder, therefore,

FIRING BY SECTIONS

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that in these days, when there is far less of home training, there should be such dislike of discipline on the part of the undergraduate body of our universities.

But schools we have to-day where discipline, even rigorous military discipline, is not only possible but popular; schools eagerly sought by a certain element among our lads for no other reason than that they *have* the soldier spirit; that they are glad to subject themselves to rule and to subordination because they find that only through drill, discipline and system can anything like precision in drill, parade or ceremony be attained, and because they have an inborn love for soldier service that triumphs over the necessary exactions of soldier schooling. It is this that has led to the incorporation of so many military academies, all more or less closely modeled after West Point. Within a day's railway ride of Chicago there are some of the very best to be found within the limits of the United States.

What is said of one of these neighboring schools may be truthfully said of nearly all. It is the earnest purpose of the faculty healthfully to develop both in mind and body the students committed to their charge, so to combine study and sleep, drill and play, that moments of idleness, fruitful ever of temptation, may be few and far between. It has been found by long experience that the most successful and thorough method of teaching personal neatness, punctuality, system, studious habits and respect to authority is that based upon the practice of the great National Academy at West Point. It has been found that, all due allowance being made for the frailty of human and boy nature, the lessons of truth, courage, integrity are most readily absorbed through the military system, with soldier honor for its spinal column. The regular hours make the lad methodical. The constantly recurring roll-calls make him prompt. The daily drills and "setting-up" exercises make him alert and erect. The daily inspection of rooms and dress make him neat and orderly. The daily marchings to every duty—chapel, mess, recitation and parade—make him precise in step and bearing. (Nine out of ten, the modern boy "slouches" unless otherwise taught; it is the fashion.) The daily outdoor sport insisted on for all hands makes him supple, vigorous and brimful of health and "ginger." Baseball, football, tennis, supplemented by the oar or the saddle, or both, send him to table with keen zest for his soldier commons and to bed with sure accompaniment of sound, refreshing sleep. It is the training of all others best qualified to develop all that is best in boy or man, and when with it all, as in many of these excellent schools, there is close and ceaseless supervision of studies and of morals, there results a degree of general excellency at graduation that alone accounts for the fact that applications for place are now far more numerous than acceptances in more than one instance within our ken.

Parents sometimes object to the cost of the uniform required, but as a rule it wears longer, looks far better and affords less opportunity for individual extravagance or display than does civilian dress. It is a singular fact that in four or five of these near-by academies not only the methods but the dress of West Point is as closely copied as western conditions permit. The gray "coatee," with the bell buttons worn by soldier sires in 1812, is still the full dress of the Point, and is also the full dress at Culver, Delafield, Orchard Lake and Shattuck, while for ordinary duty is worn the snug-fitting sack or blouse, black-braided and made, as at West Point, of the stoutest wool woven at the famous mills of Charlottesville, Jefferson's own Virginia home. It wears like leather, and no parent has yet been known who objected to the marked improvement in the bearing and carriage of the average boy before that coat was ten weeks old. The uniform costs, but so does it pay and more than pay. It might indeed be well if uniformity were insisted on even in such things as shoes, about the only item of attire in which individual fancy may express itself.

Nor is military drill their only soldier teaching, and with military drill I coun the stately ceremonies of the spring time review, parade, inspection, with the stir ring martial music of the school banc (for bands they have most of them, anc good ones), and all the brilliant evolu tions. The general government whicl provides so liberally of its stock of arms

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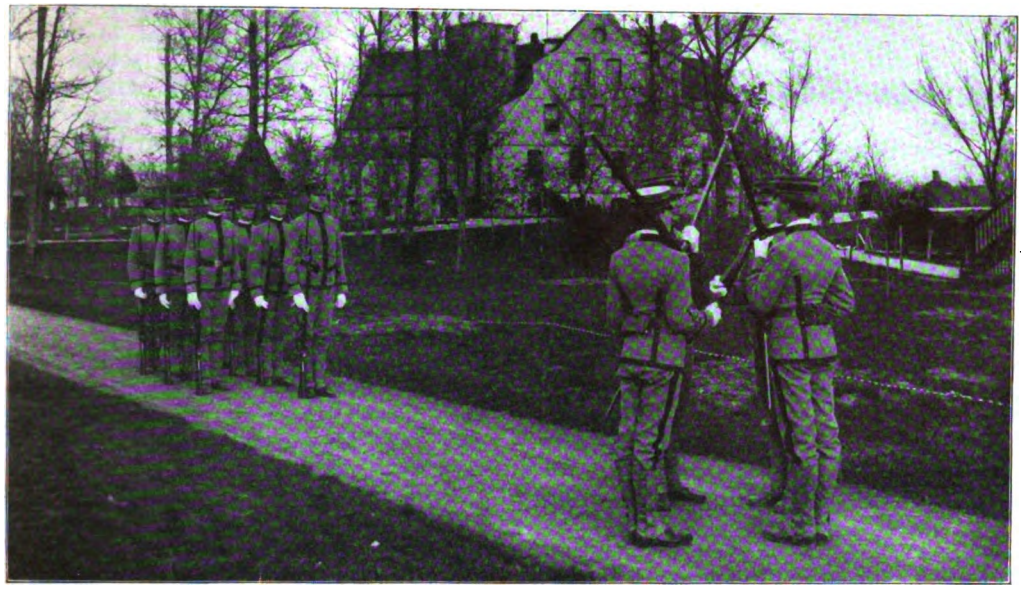

RELIEVING A SENTINEL

accoutrements and ammunition for the encouragement of these junior military academies, sends its inspectors, details its officers, prescribes its course of instruction and promises its abundant reward. Each year, so saith our President and Commander-in-Chief, of the vacancies in the army that remain after the graduating class of West Point has been assigned, six shall be reserved for those students of our other military academies who shall have proved most worthy, War Department inspectors to be, of course, the examiners and judges.

Now, there were, in 1903, no less than seventy-seven institutions at which officers of the regular army were serving under the orders of the general government as instructors in military science and tactics. There were others, a very few, that during that year, at least, were not so provided, but had benefited by the detail in the past. The latest regulations of the War Department divide these colleges or academies into three classes: First, those at which officers may be detailed, but where only a limited amount of time and attention is given to drill, and where uniform is not demanded; second, those at which a certain amount of time and attention must be given as *quid pro quo* for the generous gift of the government to such colleges as should agree to maintain a system of "instruction in military tactics and discipline" (The Agricultural College Act, so-called, of 1862), and finally, third, those in which the entire system is essentially military; students are always under discipline and in uniform, and a high degree of instruction in the military art is the result. It is of the latter only that this brief article in closing has to speak. They barely number a baker's dozen. There is but one in the New England States; there are but three in the old "Middle" States; the South has six, and the others, as has been said, are within a day's railway ride of Chicago, some of them models.

Life is a strenuous thing with the lads so fortunate as to be numbered on the rolls of one or two of those it has been my lot to know well. Up with the sun, with the flag, with the bang of the morning gun, summoned by the stirring notes of the reveille to ranks and roll-call, the youngster has but time for a quick, cold douche and a brisk dry rub before he must be in his neat gray fatigue—for all the world like that of "the Point"—brushed and groomed for sharp inspection. Then, all aglow, he is marched with eight or ten score comrades straight to the mess hall, and heads are reverently bowed a moment as grace is said; then with what appetites the battalion "falls to." There

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is half an hour in which their soldier homes are put in order for the day; half an hour for a breathing spell before the bugle summons all hands to class work or to study. The sections march away to the recitation-rooms. The officer-of-the-day, plumed and sashed, makes his rounds. From 8 till nearly 1 the corps of instructors are at their respective stations, though they, too, have a mid-morn breathing spell while the military commandant, with his assistants, puts the battalion through its paces—all squad or company work in autumn and winter; all close or extended order in the spring, with incidental whirls at the field guns or the wonderful Gatlings. Dinner comes at 1, followed by half an hour of rest. Then more recitations, more drill, "setting-up," bayonet, or the picturesque rifle gymnastics to the music of the band. But, soon after 3 another signal sounds and lo, the metamorphosis! The gray battalion scoots to barracks, and then, all in motley, by squads and groups it reappears and scatters. Bare-armed, bare-legged, brawny fellows in modern boating rig go one way, and in ten minutes a brace of beautiful eight-oared shells, coached by a hero of the Hudson's great 'Varsity race, are shooting across the bay and out over the mirror waters of "Glimmerglass." In autumn half a dozen football teams, uncouth in rig but superb in dash and action, will be at practice on the wide-spreading campus. In the spring, baseball demands its equal tribute, while those not deemed physically fit to meet the strain of America's two greatest games, fall back on tennis or handball. One thing is certain, every mother's son at school must spend those ninety minutes out of doors and in brisk exercise, even throughout the winter. The rule is as imperative as that he must again be in uniform and present at a brief and beautiful choral service (they are their own choristers, too) at chapel. Then comes supper; then "full dress" and the closing and most impressive ceremony of the day: battalion parade on the campus, with their own band playing its spirited marches and hosts of kindly neighbors looking on. Then, as the bugles cease their good-night to the setting sun and the last note echoes away across the glinting waters, with sudden bellow the old, battle-worn six-pounder adds his share to the general salute, and then out springs the tall young adjutant, up gleams the silvery baton of the drum-major; as one man the battalion starts from statuesque rest to rigid attention. Man and woman, every spectator rises and faces the tall white flag-staff, towering beyond the grove. No need to hint "hats off, gentlemen"—they have learned it since the Spanish War—as grandly the school band bursts into the strains of the "Star Spangled Banner," and slowly, gracefully the beautiful emblem comes floating earthward, disappearing at last behind the fringing screen beyond the gray walls and gothic roof of the chapel, to be gathered reverently into the arms of its guard and borne to rest in the midst of its young defenders until summoned to receive its repeated honors with the sunburst of another day.

Two hours of silence and study, each lad at his own desk, wind up the thread of sixteen hours' steady application, hours in which every moment has been planned to carry its share of duty, for, whether it be drill or parade, recitation or study, row, run bases, "circle the ends," swim, or dance over the tennis court, there must be, outside of the brief half hours the students call their own, incessant, healthful and guarded occupation for every lad within the limits of the school. This, perhaps, is why each year, at the lovely commencement season, not as single spies but in battalions, the "Old Boys" from all over the land come trooping back to revisit the scenes they had learned to love, to cheer the rival crews and nines, to applaud the clocklike precision of the gray and white battalion, to tell marvelous tales to eager undergraduates of the deeds done in their days, and to muse again over the motto that was their constant inspiration in their own soldier-boy hours: "Work hard; play hard; pray hard."

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STUDENT CLUBS AND THE UNIVERSITY SPIRIT

BY

GEORGE E. VINCENT

DEAN OF THE JUNIOR COLLEGE, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

"SO long as the city can grow," says Socrates in the fourth book of "The Republic," "without abandoning its unity, up to that point it may be allowed to grow, but not beyond it." This principle holds true of every social group from the nation to the family. The need of unity is felt on every hand. The village growing into town and city regrets the simpler democracy of the earlier years. The church finds it even harder to translate the brotherhood of man into actual social solidarity. The political party discovers that disciplined uniformity is increasingly difficult to maintain. Whether we heed the complaints of graduates, who mourn the passing of class loyalty, college spirit and student democracy, or listen to the stirring appeals of those who demand a new student life with new ideals of scholarship, individuality and independence, we can not avoid the conviction that radical changes are at work in the social life of our educational institutions.

The causes of such changes are either obvious or not far to seek. The mere increase in numbers of students has created new problems. In 1878 the 660 undergraduates in Yale College could gather about the old fence in a family party, but the nineteen hundred of to-day, even if the fence remained, would be at best an unwieldy crowd. If the students of the Sheffield Scientific School and the professional departments be added, the total rises to twenty-seven hundred. Even the famous Yale spirit is a good deal baffled by these numbers. At Cambridge the situation is still more perplexing. Twenty-five years ago Harvard enrolled less than nine hundred undergraduates, as against nearly twenty-seven hundred to-day. The total number of Harvard students of all departments now approximates forty-five hundred. Columbia, Pennsylvania and Michigan have quadrupled their numbers during the last quarter century, while Cornell and California have increased tenfold. The class, the former unit, has grown unwieldy. The undergraduate of the early eighties might easily know every man in a class of 125, but to-day the Harvard or Yale student can not even recognize all of his four or five hundred classmates.

But class unity has suffered from another change. Under the old plan of required studies, practically all students, during the first two years at least, recited the same lessons to the same instructors. This gave a common fund of experience and a constancy of contact. Under the elective system, there is no such uniformity in curriculum and the class inevitably falls into shifting groups with little or no social stability. The German lecture system, which prevails at Harvard and is being introduced in some cases at other universities, tends still further to prevent personal acquaintance among students who meet in large sections and are rarely, if ever, called upon to recite in the presence of their fellows.

The abandonment by most of the larger universities of daily chapel exercises—in many state institutions these never were held—has had a disintegrating influence socially, whatever may be urged in its favor on other grounds. In most institutions a weekly gathering of a part, if not all, of the student body is still maintained. The effect of such daily as-

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semblies was undoubtedly to create a sense of corporate unity. At Yale the academic undergraduates have voted to continue college prayers, chiefly for the sake of fostering loyalty and comradeship. Unfortunately, few of the great universities have halls large enough to seat even half of their students. The University Hall at Michigan, the great Greek Theater at Berkeley and the new Wolseley Hall at Yale are notable exceptions.

Again, the differences in wealth and social position, which are asserting themselves in the life of the country as a whole, are making themselves felt in college and university life as well. From this tendency there is no escape. It is not that rich or well-to-do students are becoming consciously scornful of their poorer fellows. Differences in expenditure tend to classify individuals. In the long run, men of similar resources gravitate into groups and sets. They do this, for the most part, without any purpose to withdraw from the common life. Naturally they live in comfortable or luxurious quarters, they dine at private and expensive clubs, they keep horses and motor cars, they make trips with the teams, they go into society, they know the "best people," they run over to London and the continent in the vacation. Thus they build up a standard and acquire a status which the great majority of their college mates can only distantly approximate. The presence of these men, good fellows for the most part, gentlemen, is a constant reminder of social distinctions which, when the best has been said, do not make for democracy. These conditions are to be found chiefly, although not exclusively, in eastern institutions. Western colleges and universities reflect the more democratic conditions of a newer social system.

Only a few, however, of the large universities have lost an earlier unity. Many others, city institutions, like Columbia, Chicago and Pennsylvania, and certain state universities of the middle West, have never had a unified social life to lose. They have grown not so much by the increase of an academic department or arts college as by the multiplication of professional and technical departments which have attracted many students, some coming directly from the secondary schools, others graduates of colleges and universities of the tributary region. In most cases the lack of dormitories and commons has increased the difficulty of welding all these elements into any real university unity.

Rivalry on diamond or gridiron is a powerful factor in fostering college spirit. Granted that the often frenzied enthusiasm of a university match seems grotesquely dissonant with the aims and ideals of higher education, granted that the sight and sound of organized cheering —especially by women—are offensive to cultivated taste, granted all this, yet the fact remains that such untoward things do give the sense of "oneness with one's kind." But such influences are intermittent and transitory, and, it must be admitted, too often result in that kind of patriotism which mistakes hatred of other countries for love of one's own. In the newer universities there is much talk of college spirit as something to be had at all hazards, much holding of mass-meetings, much berating in the college press of those who do not manifest loyalty in various ways. There is something quite as pathetic in the eager seeking of these new universities for some vague millenial unity, as in the wistful gaze of the others at the good old times of simple democracy and personal friendship.

But rapid growth and signs of social disintegration must not be misinterpreted. Administratively, universities are being more and more highly organized, while student life is becoming increasingly complex. The fear is not that the students will be unduly individualized and isolated, but that they will form into narrow schools, societies, fraternities, sets and factions. Zeal for these smaller groups, and the rivalries and distinctions they engender, are regarded as a menace to the larger loyalty which is due the university as a whole. The democracy of student life seems thus to be threatened. The growing breach in large universities between faculty and students, whose intimate relations in the small college are so highly valued, is also deplored by those who have the welfare of these great universities at heart.

It is futile to bewail this tendency toward grouping. It is a universal soc

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force. If "university life is more than university learning," such opportunities for intimacy are to be welcomed. In many universities of the middle West and in several of the eastern colleges the fraternities are the sole centers of social intercourse. They are in many ways analogous to the colleges of an English university. Moreover, by their national affiliations they make for a kind of academic cosmopolitanism, breaking down provincialism and mollifying the acerbity of intercollegiate rivalry. The local societies of Harvard, Yale and Princeton serve useful purposes in their respective institutions. The many cross-groupings of athletic, debating, literary and social clubs and committees do much to prevent men and women from being narrowed to one or two associations. Membership in several different clubs counteracts a tendency to intense, partisan zeal and bigotry. There is need for such protection. Young men and women of the college age are naturally partisans. Many a university seems to be not a community, but a vast complex of groups mutually indifferent, exclusive, or actively antagonistic. Now and then a wave of contagious excitement sweeps through the student body; colors break out in a gorgeous epidemic, cheers and songs burst forth—for the moment there is a common sentiment of sorrow or triumph as the team suffers defeat or wins a victory. Then, the emotional season passed, the temporary unity resolves itself into the normal state of group and factional life.

THE LIBRARY, HARVARD UNION

The danger to university communities has already been pondered by faculty and alumni. It is interesting to note the efforts which are being made either to preserve a democratic loyalty or to foster it. The Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Association are counted upon for aid. In some institutions their field is rather specifically and exclusively religious, in others it broadens into a general social force. Much depends upon the conditions and equipment. Such an institution as Earl Hall, the gift of Mr. William E. Dodge to Columbia, is really a social club controlled in the interest of biblical study and ethical and religious activity. Phillips Brooks House, at Harvard, serves a somewhat similar end. Dwight Hall, at Yale, is really a large and well-appointed club freely available for social gatherings and general resort. The new Byers Hall, the gift of Mrs. Martha F. Byers, of Pittsburg, to the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale, is still more distinctly a social center. A reading-room, billiard-room, assembly-hall and dormitories are provided. The Y. M. C. A. has special quarters in the building, but Byers Hall is not to be known as a distinctly Christian Association building. This new club will serve a valuable purpose in a student body which has long felt the need of some rallying point. At Michigan and Illinois the Christian Associations have their own clubhouses, which are reported as playing an important part in the student life.

Valuable as this Christian Association work undoubtedly is from an ethical and religious standpoint, it has distinct limitations as a general unifying social force. So far as unity can be secured by social contact, other centers devoted exclusively to the purpose will be provided. Three instructive institutions of this type are

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THE LIVING ROOM OF THE HARVARD UNION

already in existence in Philadelphia, Cambridge and Chicago.

The Harry Houston Hall, of the University of Pennsylvania, was designed to afford a rallying point for the scattered students of the university. The present dormitory system was then only slightly developed. The men either lived in lodgings or in their city homes. There was little or no sense of corporate unity except as it was stimulated by athletics. The donor, coöperating with the authorities, sought to found a student club on the broad basis of a common membership in a great university. The building itself is a handsome, dignified structure of stone. It is easily accessible from all the university halls. It is equipped as a well-appointed modern club. In the basement are bowling alleys, toilet and baths, a book store. On the first floor a spacious central living-room or hall gives access at one end to a billiard-room, at the other to a reading-room and library. On the second floor are writing-rooms, a lunch counter, a number of small apartments which may be used for club meetings, an assembly-room and an athletic trophy room. The interior finish and furnishing of the hall are in keeping with the dignity and beauty of the whole building. The test of the club's value lies, of course, in the number of students who frequent it, and the way in which they use it.

Houston Hall serves the students of a city university, a majority of whom spend only a part of each day on the campus. To such students the hall is a home. Here they may study between recitation periods, write their papers, take luncheon, play billiards or bowl with their friends, chat about athletic games, the wiles of professors, the latest joke—in short, gradually build up that sense of comradeship which comes only from social intercourse and common experience. Yet, the two or three hundred men to be found in the building on a given morning do not form a single group. They break up into congenial companies of friends and acquaintances, but even so they are under one roof, mingle more or less and get the feeling of at least vague community of interest. Then, too, on special occasions, they rally to celebrate a victory, or attend a smoker given for some distinguished alumnus, or to hear some plan of common interest proposed. It is admitted on all sides that Houston Hall has been one of the most effective forces which, during the last decade, have aroused a "Pennsylvania spirit" in what was once hardly more than a collection of separate schools and student groups.

The Harvard Union has grown out of a conscious purpose to rally the men of Cambridge in a new and democratic loyalty to America's oldest university. Disintegration began earlier and possibly went further at Harvard than elsewhere. Not only increase in numbers and the spread of the elective system, but a certain traditional individualism—sometimes stigmatized by Yale men as "Harvard indifference"—tended to break up the old unity of Harvard College into the *particularismus* of Harvard University. Whether the alleged effect of this upon athletic success played any part or not, certain it is that all through the nineties a number of graduates and students of Harvard carried on an agitation for renewal of democracy and loyalty to the university. Harvard cheering, which had been a reproach, was, by frequent rehearsals, improved to the point where even vociferous Yale was out-shouted and out-sung; mass-meetings were held, articles ap-

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peared in the college papers, a new spirit was preached and even practiced. But something was needed to crystallize and render permanent this renewed zeal. A great Harvard club was proposed. Presently that generous friend of the university, Major Henry L. Higginson, gave $150,000 for "a house open to all Harvard men without restriction and in which they all stand equal—a house bearing no name forever except that of our university." Thus was the keynote struck. The corporation gave a corner of the college yard for the new building, which, on Commencement Day, 1901, was formally opened as the Harvard Union.

The great oak-paneled living-room is the spacious and symbolic center of the new club. It is an accepted place for university mass-meetings and for the demonstrations of loyalty and enthusiasm which precede important athletic contests or celebrate their successful issue. No student need has been overlooked. A grillroom and lunch counter are open at all hours. The university training tables are provided from the Union *cuisine*. A library of six thousand volumes—the gift of an alumnus—offers an opportunity for collateral reading. Large writing-rooms are in constant use for correspondence. Not only college papers but dailies from the chief cities of the country are on file in the reading-room. In the large billiard-room the principle of perfect equality seems to be violated, for signs over certain tables read: "For freshmen only." A ladies' restaurant, with its own separate entrance, suggests possibilities of entertaining visiting friends and relatives. Guests may be lodged in the rooms on the third floor. In every detail the building is dignified and beautiful, adequately expressing a noble purpose and a cultivated taste. Forty-five hundred Harvard men are to-day members of this club. Nearly eighteen hundred enrolled students are active members, paying dues of $10 per year. Eighteen hundred and seventy officers, alumni, and students of

HARVARD UNION, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

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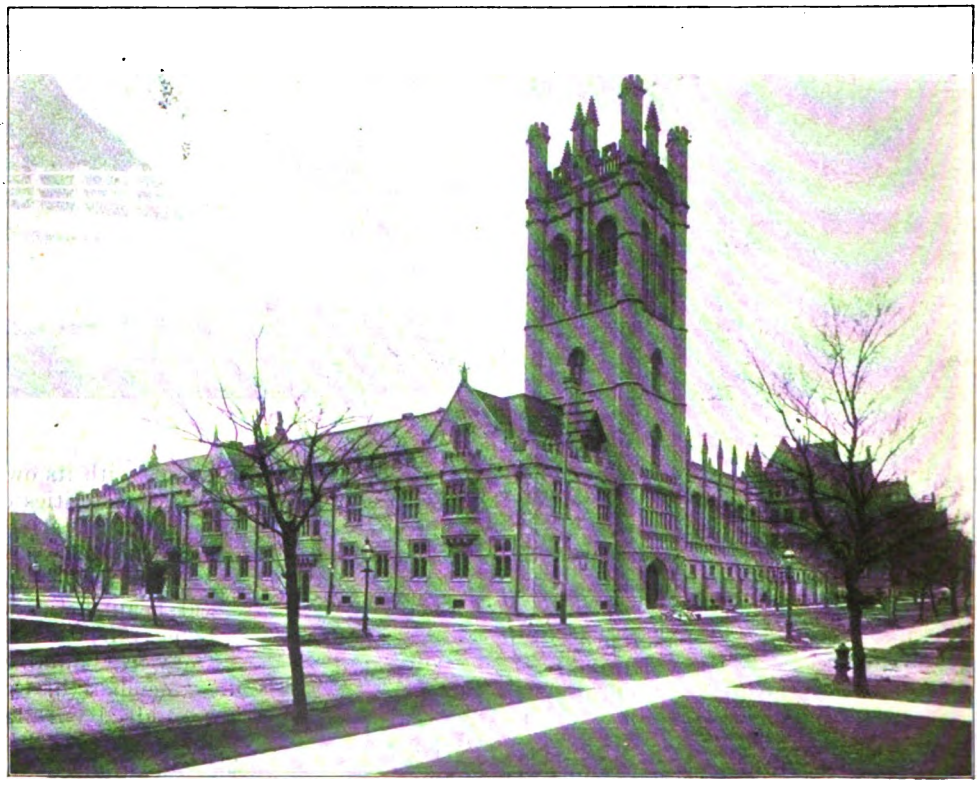
Harvard schools outside of Cambridge, but within twenty-five miles of the yard, pay $5 a year as associate members. About the same number of graduates are listed as non-resident members at $3 per annum. Nine hundred and forty graduates and forty students have become life members by paying the sums of $50 and $75 respectively. The large number of graduate members of the union is significant. The club is already a rendezvous for visiting alumni. At commencement time it is crowded with a reminiscent company. Here fathers and sons mingle in a common loyalty to *Alma Mater*. The union stands not only for the unity of the men who form the university body at a given time, but for the solidarity of all Harvard men from the oldest "grad." to the youngest freshman.

The question as to how far the union is succeeding in doing what its founders had in view receives different answers. All agree that it is an individual convenience and that it has added to the pleasure and comfort of life in Cambridge. Certain enthusiasts see a marked change in the sentiments of the university and attribute this to the democratizing influence of the union. Others rather cynically point out that while the club men, the aristocratic and smart set join the union as a matter of good form, they do not often appear in the house, and assume toward the institution somewhat the attitude of wealthy and exclusive church members toward a "sociable" in the vestry. The truth probably is that large numbers of Harvard students have found the club a welcome convenience, that it has furnished a social center, that it has symbolized an ideal of common loyalty, but that it has not brought the whole student body into real social unity. In the circumstances it could not be expected to do that. Time alone can demonstrate the permanent service of the new union.

The Reynolds Club, at the University of Chicago, is a gift from the estate of the late Joseph Reynolds, whose executors, in exercising a large discretion, decided that a clubhouse for men was an



THE TOWER GROUP, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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THE LIBRARY, REYNOLDS CLUB, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

important need of the new city university. The house, a late-Gothic building of Indiana limestone, is a charming structure externally and no less beautiful within. In the basement are bowling alleys, toilet-rooms and barber shop; the first floor is given up to a large billiard-room and a magnificent library and reading-room. On the second floor a long Elizabethan apartment is known as the music-room. A number of small club and committee rooms are also provided. The double staircase, with a large mullioned window on the landing, is a notable feature of the building. The third story is given up to a small theater, which is used both for plays and dances. The Reynolds Club is in a sense a building complete in itself, but in another, it is part of the "Tower group," which includes a tower modeled after Magdalen tower at Oxford, a commons hall—an exact reproduction of Christ Church (Oxford)—and Leon Mandel Assembly Hall, an audience-room which seats sixteen hundred. The tower, commons and assembly hall are connected with the Reynolds Club by a picturesque cloister which thus unites the group. The Alumni Club and University Board have rooms in the upper stories of the tower. The Bartlett gymnasium for men is directly across the street from the club. The decorations and furnishing of the whole tower group were designed by Mr. Frederick Bartlett, of Chicago, whose admirable taste has given those buildings an artistic atmosphere in perfect harmony with the architectural scheme. The whole effect is one of distinction and charm. The club was opened in October, 1903, and hence is in its first year. The response of the university men has been fairly gratifying. The enrollment of students is by quarters—the official divisions of the academic year. Active members pay dues of $2 per quarter or $6 per annum. Associate members, faculty and alumni are accepted at $2 per year.

The house is a good deal frequented by men at mealtime. They drop in before and after luncheon and dinner, which are served in the adjoining commons hall and café. During the winter the bowling alleys and billiard-tables were in constant demand. Several informal smokers, with songs and "stunts," were given in the

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theater. A number of receptions and dances, to which women students were invited, were features of the winter season. Many groups of friends and different faculty and student committees used the small clubrooms. From time to time distinguished visitors to the university were entertained. In short, the Reynolds Club in its first year has made itself distinctly felt as a force in university life.

Yet there has been a somewhat disappointing side to the experiment. While many fraternity men have taken an interest in the club and are among its officers, the fraternity members as a class have not frequented the club in any considerable number or with any regularity. This does not mean that they are supercilious or exclusive. They simply find the life in their Chapter Houses so satisfying that they feel little or no need of the club. To be sociable from a sense of duty is at best a dull pastime. One does it on occasions but not regularly. Again, the students who spend the day at the university and the night at home, are, for the most part, too busy to spend time in social intercourse. They do not seem to appreciate the club as one might expect them to do. Of the 250 students—a majority non-residents—who take luncheon daily across the corridor from the club entrance, scarcely thirty on the average are to be found in the house either before or after the meal. But it may be fairly asserted that it is too early to draw conclusions as to the ultimate service of the club. It is ready to be molded to student needs.

Of what permanent value will such clubs as these prove to be in solving the problem of university unity? Can they prevent the disintegration into groups, sets and isolated personal units? Are they attempts to restore town-meeting principles in an urban life? Must the small college idea of unity be abandoned and a new conception of university unity be established for it? Such questions naturally arise as one ponders these problems. With increase of numbers unity on the basis of personal acquaintance becomes increasingly difficult; after a time impossible. This the great universities must frankly admit. It behooves them, therefore, to foster small groups, bound together by personal ties, and in these groups to develop a loyalty to common university ideals. The national unity of the United States rests not on personal acquaintance but on a common tradition, free publicity, a common loyalty to national principles. How can the great university preserve the valuable elements of the small college—personal intimacy, democracy, friendly contact between instructor and student—and at the same time utilize expensive centralized equipments, furnish instruction of an advanced type, and foster ideals of scholarship and research? In this crisis it is significant to note the resort to England for suggestions. Mr. John Corbin, in his recent book, "An American at Oxford," advocates a combination of the English resident college idea and the American university system of teaching. President Woodrow Wilson is asking the friends of Princeton for several millions with which to inaugurate a tutorial system on the Oxford and Cambridge plan. The University of Chicago has plans well under way for resident houses, in which groups of students shall live a common social life, in contact with a resident head—a faculty member—and a group of other instructors. Thus it is hoped to secure a real community on the basis of daily association in groups of fifty to seventy-five. It would be premature to predict specific results, but certainly a solution seems to be in this direction.

Meantime, these student clubs are to be welcomed as convenient centers, as rallying points, as symbols of unity. But they must not be counted upon to transform the life of great and growing universities. Small academic groups must be recognized and provided for, and these must then be unified, not by futile efforts at universal acquaintance, but by developing, through tradition, personal influence, the college press and frequent assembly, mutual tolerance and respect, and a common loyalty to those ideals of truth, service and civic righteousness which alone can make a university great and well beloved.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

An Ideal Holiday

THERE is an increasing number of travelers more interested in studying the life and the social conditions of people than in merely seeing the "sights" of different countries. One of these will stand at a street corner quietly watching the passers-by and those who, like him, are standing there, and in a short hour he will be more in touch with the life of the people than those who are hurrying or are being hurried to various "show" places. While the "conducted" tour is no doubt very well suited to the needs of the great majority, the ideal tour or holiday desired by the student of social conditions would no doubt be very like the one arranged for in Denmark. It leaves England on August 9 and lasts for ten days, but frequently friends arrange to prolong their stay in the country and sometimes a trip is arranged to Norway or Sweden. On arriving at Copenhagen the members of the party are conducted to the various hotels to which they have been apportioned. So cheap is living in Denmark that it has been found that with due care £8 covers the expenses of the whole holiday of ten days, including the journey. This includes also the fee of one guinea which is charged to cover the expenses of organization. This fee can be dispensed with at the discretion of the honorary secretary, Miss Butlin, Old Headington, Oxford. Special arrangements are made for parties from settlements, coöperative societies, clubs, etc.

The main feature, and in it rests the great charm of the holiday, is the provision made to bring the visitors into direct touch with Danish life. A lecture on the country and its history by one of the leading professors is followed by excursions to different places of interest and a

ONE OF THE AGENCIES THAT ARE ACTUALLY MAKING A CLEAN CHICAGO

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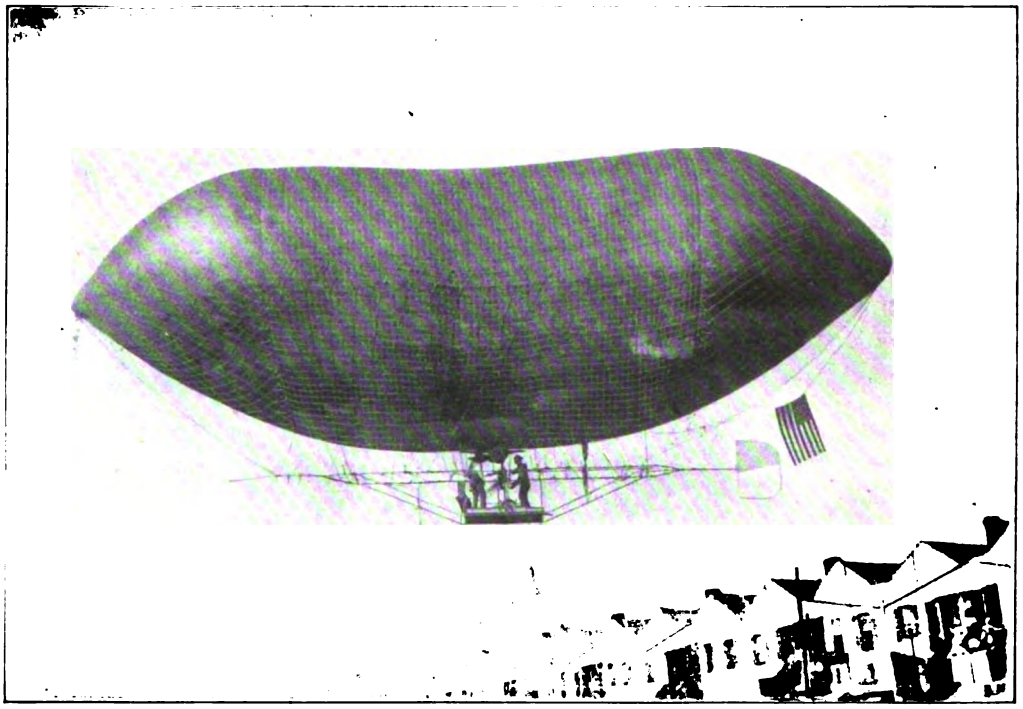
social evening. The list of lecturers is evidence that the leading men and women in the country enjoy the opportunity of coming into contact with those from other countries who are interested in the same subject as they. Professor Otto Jespersen, Ph.D., who has been asked to deliver a lecture on the English language at the St. Louis Exposition, and who is now in the United States, lectures to the holiday party on the university and the schools. He is said to know more about the English language than any Englishman, and he was once asked to become one of the professors at Cambridge University, England. Harald Höffding, Ph.D., professor of philosophy at the University of Copenhagen, who is also lecturing at the St. Louis Exposition, lectures on Sören Kierkegaard, the Dane who has had so powerful an influence on German thought and through it on English. Karl Mantzius, the famous actor at the National Theater, Copenhagen, and author of "The History of the Theater"—the only one that has been written—speaks on "Ludvig Holberg, Father of the Danish Theater," a man who is called a second Molière, but who is as yet almost unknown in England.

Pleasant excursions are made by rail and electric car to coöperative dairy farms, breweries and bakeries, to the Thorvaldsen Museum, the Finsen light-cure institute and other places of interest. One of the most popular lectures, and just as popular with the men as with the women, is a demonstration of Danish cookery by Fröken Eline Hansen, instructress at the State Cookery Class. This is followed by short addresses by women on Danish women's opportunities in education and life, and other kindred subjects. After a similar lecture, last August, a number of English women carried home a "hay-box," a box lined with hay. When the Danish housewife has given her children their midday dinner and has to keep her husband's for him, she simply places it in this box, closes it, and the non-conducting properties of the hay will keep the meal quite hot from one o'clock till seven in the evening. One of the lecturers, Gerson Trier, M. A., introduced the English University Extension scheme into Denmark. It has been enthusiastically adopted; people have not joined by units but in whole trades unions and coöperative societies.



THE GRETH AIRSHIP IN ITS ASCENT AT SAN FRANCISCO

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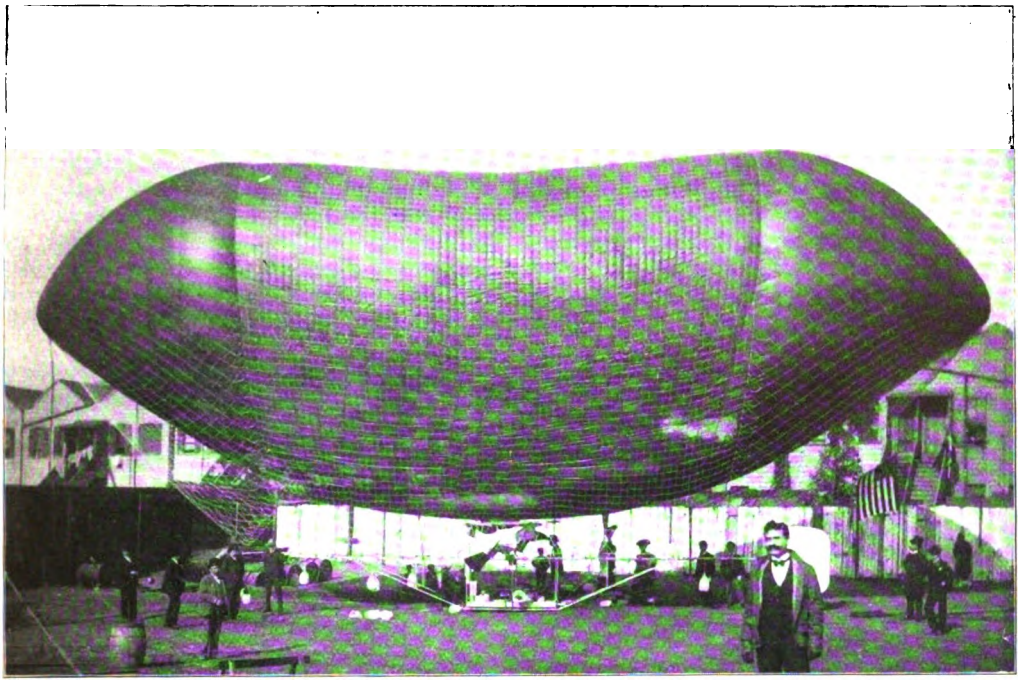

THE GRETH AIRSHIP WITH ITS FOUNDER IN THE FOREGROUND

It will be observed that this holiday is no financial venture. It is as much the outcome of the desire of the most advanced among the Danes to meet those interested in their country as it is the outcome of the desire of Miss Butlin, who has been connected with settlement work in London, that the working classes in other countries and all those in sympathy with them should have an opportunity of studying a country and a people where the working classes govern themselves better than do those of any other nation. There are many charming features of Danish life which add to the enjoyment of the trip. The Tivoli Gardens, where all classes meet on summer evenings to listen to the bands and see shows of all kinds, are right in front of the hall where the lectures are given and round which hotels are situated. Perhaps Denmark is the only country in which the budding of the beech trees is the occasion of flag waving and a national fête. The kindliness of the people is shown by the fact that several clubs, the Studentersamfundet, for students of the university; the Kvindelig Laese Forening, a club and library for women, and the Dansk Kunstfiids Forening, club of the Danish Art Union, have opened their doors to these visitors. Some of the leading citizens and their wives assist also in the reception

E. Douglas Sheilds.

The Greth Airship

DR. AUGUST GRETH, an Alsatian by birth, is a practicing physician in San Francisco. For twenty years he has been experimenting in aeronautics and has nine United States patents for airships. On October 18 of last year the Greth airship made a successful ascent at San Francisco, showing a high degree of dirigibility.

The Greth airship consists of a balloon, having a length when inflated of seventy-five feet and a maximum diameter of twenty-five feet. A frame suspended from the balloon carries the motor, the propelling and steering gear and the operator. The balloon is elliptical in shape and has a specially devised netting over it, which keeps it taut on the top and at the ends, even with a small supply of gas, and prevents it from "buckling." The frame is swung only seven feet below the balloon, which renders the machine more dirigible. In other models of

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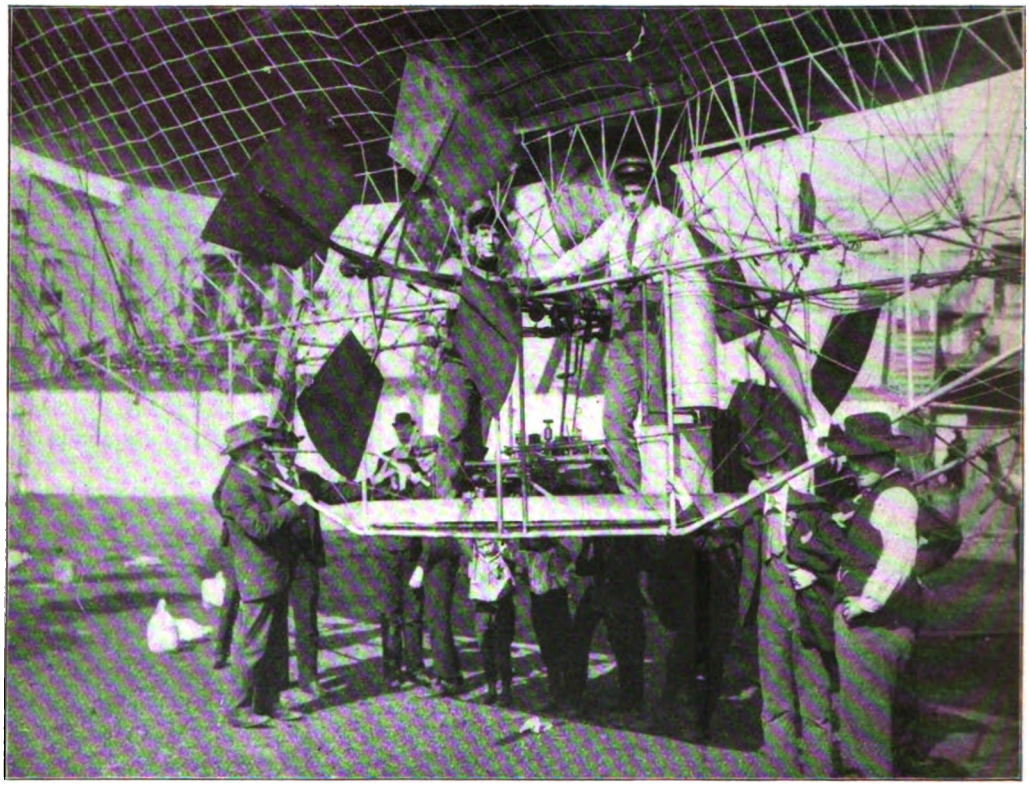
airships the frame is swung twenty feet below the balloon, and is a drag on the buoyancy of the machine, besides making it harder to control. Dr. Greth finds that the nearness of the gasoline motor to the balloon is not dangerous.

The inventor considers that the propellers of his machine are great improvements upon those used in other airships. There are four propellers, one at each cardinal point of the frame, worked through universal shafts by one motor. These can be worked separately or together and at any angle. By manipulating them properly the balloon can always be kept in a horizontal position and can be raised, lowered or driven in any desired direction.

The propellers used in Dr. Greth's first ascent were attached to the sides of the car and were only two instead of four in number. The motor was inefficient and the appliances crude. The motor was a gasoline engine, weighing five hundred pounds, and, though nominally of ten horse-power, actually developed only six horse-power. When the ship was at an altitude of two thousand feet, it stopped working and a descent had to be made. For the greater part of the time that the ship was in the air it was under complete control. Another defect in the balloon was the lack of automatic expansion valves, the result being that under the hot sun the gas in the balloon expanded rapidly and some had to be let out to prevent it from bursting.



THE CAR OF DR. GRETH'S AIRSHIP

On April 23, 1904, another ascent was made, the airship being fitted with an automobile engine of twenty horse-power, set up in a much larger and stronger frame than the first. An aeronaut named Baldwin went up in the car and at a height of several hundred feet showed the dirigibility of the ship. On getting into a current of cold air, the motor stopped and Baldwin, not being familiar with the engine, was unable to start it. He let the ship drift until he could descend on a soft, grassy spot. The machinery was not

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damaged at all, but the aluminum frame was twisted by the contact with the ground. The inventor said: "The apparatus is not all I wish for in the way of equipment, but I am satisfied that even with the present craft I ean sail in the air wherever I choose to go and can descend at pleasure." ARTHUR INKERSLEY.

Woman's Invasion of New Industrial Fields

WOMAN'S invasion of the industrial field is a subject that has caused leaders of organized labor much thought in the past few years. It promises to become a still greater problem in the future, for the spirit of commercialism and the greater freedom of woman combine to open up new avenues for her activity.

The outcome of the action recently taken by the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of America, an organization composed of packing-house employes, in seeking to bar women from that field of activity will be watched with interest by students of this social problem. Women using knives and steels have always been denied membership in the Butchers' Union. Recently the butchers have gone further and demanded of the packers that the women engaged in that occupation be replaced by men. Sentiment plays an important part in the demand, but there is another and more real object behind the agitation. Women work for lower wages than men and readily adapt themselves to the work, so that men are being crowded out. "Brutalizing" and "unwomanly" are the terms used by Michael Donnelly, president of the butcher workmen, in describing the work done by women in the packing-houses. But Donnelly is a far-seeing leader. By putting forward the sentimental side of the question he is more likely to have public opinion on his side.

"I have seen women standing in a pool of blood, with arms bared to the elbows, cutting open hogs' heads while the flesh was still quivering," a Kansas City butcher told me. "This spirit of commercialism is going too far when it calls that woman's work," he added. There is something that shocks the sensibilities in seeing a woman at work in a slaughter-house. We like rather to think of her as shuddering and turning away from the sight of blood. That is weakness, perhaps, but it is womanly. We love her better for that weakness. Working in such an environment may not necessarily brutalize a woman's nature, but few of us would care to see our sisters or daughters engaged in such work.

Few people know to what extent women are invading our great packing-houses. The number in the Chicago stockyards has almost doubled in the past year. At the present time two thousand women are employed there. It is true that a little less than half that number are engaged in the revolting work described, the majority being employed in painting and labeling cans, wrapping and packing soap and butterine. To such work the butchers make no objection. But the number engaged in the less pleasing occupation is gradually being increased. Last summer the sausagemakers at the stockyards went on strike. The strike was not sanctioned by the national officers of the organization, and when the men refused to return to work the packers proceeded to fill their places with women. The union could not object. The men had struck without authority. The women are at work to-day, filling, linking and trimming sausage. The men are seeking work. What wages the women are being paid is known only to themselves and their employers. They are Lithuanian peasant women. Few can speak the English language. To organize them would be practically impossible, even were it advisable, which the union officials do not believe. But at frequent intervals a few men are laid off and a few more women hired. Can the union stop the innovation?

In its crusade against this invasion of women, the Butchers' Union has the active sympathy of many women prominent in social settlement work. They agree with the men that the work is brutalizing, but it raises an interesting question: What is woman's work? That she has entered the industrial field to stay there is no doubt. That she is invading new fields each year is equally certain. Within the past ten years the number of women in the United States engaged in gainful occupations has increased by two millions. The army of

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unemployed men has also increased, although the number can not be accurately estimated, as it fluctuates with trade conditions. To what extent is the latter condition the result of the former?

The Franklin Union of Pressfeeders went on strike nearly a year ago for an increase in wages. The places of the men were taken by girls at about one-half the wages the men had been receiving. The employers say that the experiment has proved a success, not alone by reason of the reduced cost of operation, but also by the increased output. The girls have proved more efficient than men. The strike is still on, so that allowance must be made for the statement of the employers, but one thing is certain: the work is being done by girls in a field hitherto considered as belonging to men. Within the past year messenger boys in Boston and Chicago went on strike. In both instances their places were filled by girls. The manager of the Chicago concern told me, "The girls are more satisfactory than boys. They don't stop to look at windows so much." One would hardly expect to find women at work in a brass foundry. Like a slaughter-house, a foundry seems out of woman's sphere. But in Chicago there are more than two hundred girls employed as coremakers in brass foundries. They do the work as well as men at much lower wages. You can also find women at work in blacksmith shops, making horse nails. In can factories they outnumber men. That the number of women employed in shops and factories will be increased rather than diminished in the future seems certain. Agitation against unrestricted immigration is sure to result in legislation being enacted making it more difficult for cheap foreign labor to come to our shores. That will offer still greater opportunities for women. Increased opportunities for women means decreased opportunities for men.

The move of the stockyards butchers, conducted under the guise of sentiment, but in reality a measure of self-protection, may prove the forerunner of similar moves on the part of other unions. The striking messenger boys a few months ago in a letter to the public press appealed to the mothers of the girls who were taking their places, urging them to keep their daughters out of the messenger service on

DR. RUSSELL CONWELL'S CHURCH EQUIPPED FOR A TELEPHONIC SERVICE
The megaphones are in front of the pulpit and choir

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HOSPITAL PATIENTS HEARING DR. CONWELL'S SERMON BY TELEPHONE

moral grounds. Only in a few directions has this open opposition to girls been shown, but it is likely to appear in many before long. As woman enters new fields and men are displaced, the feeling of opposition will grow. The unions have been compelled to restrict the number of apprentices in skilled trades to prevent overcrowding as far as possible. They may soon find it necessary to limit the sphere of woman's activity for the same reason. At present the agitation is to organize women and secure for them equal wages with men for equal work performed. But that policy is meeting with but a very limited measure of success.

LUKE GRANT.

Preaching by Telephone

CLEARLY and sweetly the words of the hymn "How Firm a Foundation" came to the ears of the patients in the Samaritan Hospital, Philadelphia, on a recent Sunday. Dr. Russell H. Conwell had caused the hospital to be connected with the Baptist Temple by means of telephones, and with megaphones strung in front of the pulpit and receivers in the hospital wards, the singing of the chorus and the words of the sermon were distinctly heard by the patients.

The idea came to Dr. Conwell while his daughter was a patient in one of the Philadelphia hospitals. At that time it was found possible for her to hear the services at her father's church by rigging up a temporary megaphone and telephone connection and the monotony of hospital life was so agreeably relieved by the innovation that Dr. Conwell determined to carry the idea out on an elaborate scale.

The telephone company undertook the contract to place telephones in all the wards of the Samaritan Hospital, of which Dr. Conwell is the president, and to hang a string of megaphones in front of the platform at the church. For those patients who were too weak to hold the receiver to the ear, head attachments were provided so that without the slightest exertion on their part the services at the Temple could be heard almost as plainly as though they occupied seats in the church. The voice of the preacher came strongly and clearly over the wire, every word caught by the faithful megaphones and carried to the delighted patients at the hospital. The singing to the

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accompaniment of the great organ was so realistically close to the ears of the hospital inmates that many joined involuntarily in the exercises, scarcely realizing that they were a long distance from the scenes of the services. Telephone communication with the hospital will be a regular feature of Dr. Conwell's services hereafter, and other hospitals will be connected with the church if the trustees desire. H. D. JONES.

Free Libraries for Railroad Men

AN experiment that is being watched with much interest by practical railroad men is the system of libraries and reading-rooms which has been established by the Santa Fe Railroad at important division points of its road. The situation is admirably stated by President Ripley of the road when he says: "We believe in an enlightened selfishness which provides books and recreation for our men in order to induce better service than would otherwise result. We would rather pay for books and billiard tables than for wrecks; it is cheaper and in every way preferable."

As a rule, the reading-rooms, of which there are now between twenty-five and thirty in operation, are built on the right-of-way of the road and are of the same general design as the station, although more ornate in appearance. Some, indeed, are beautiful and costly buildings. Each consists of three large rooms. One is the reading-room and library proper. Here are on file the leading daily papers, the current magazines and many periodicals of more or less technical interest to railroad men. The bookcases are filled with books that would attract the eye of a discriminating reader and lover of books anywhere, and indicate that great care has been exercised in their selection. But what is most important, the books and other literature show every evidence of constant and profitable use; the reading-rooms have become the habitual resort of the men, and it is now generally understood that when a man off duty is wanted he is most certain to be found in the library.

The second of the three rooms is reserved for games—cards, checkers, dominoes, etc.—and there many a weary hour is enlivened, but no gambling or games of chance of any sort are indulged in. The third room is given over entirely to billiards. Perhaps there is no feature about the entire institution, however, of greater importance than the bathrooms. Their number is usually from four to six, and they are elegantly fitted up with porcelain-lined tubs, shower baths and every modern device. They, too, are free to the men, even in places in the desert where water is hauled seventy-five miles and sold for $1.50 a barrel!

THE READING-ROOM AT ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO

Before the advent of the reading-rooms the only possible resort for the railroad men in many cases was the saloons. They flourished in the most arid of desert regions, and when a man came in from a long run he naturally made his way at once, dirty and tired, to one of them to get a lunch. In many places most of his time when off duty would be spent there. Now all that is largely changed; saloons are going out of business; Harvey

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RECREATION BUILDING FREE TO RAILROAD MEN AT ALBUQUERQUE, N. M.

READING-ROOM FOR RAILROAD MEN AT NEEDLES, CALIFORNIA

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SOD HOUSE AT HELENA, OKLAHOMA
The only building on the town site in August, 1903

GETTING READY TO GROW
The Entire Town of Helena, October 1, 1903

HELENA, OKLAHOMA, IN FEBRUARY, 1904
This shows only about two-thirds of the town

FROM A SOD HOUSE TO A TOWN IN SIX MONTHS

eating-houses where a railroad man can get a meal fit for a king for twenty-five cents have been introduced; the evenings are spent in playing games, in reading or in a social dance at the clubrooms, followed by a night of sound, refreshing sleep.

The provision of good books, recreations and baths is only a part of the plan. Mr. Busser, the superintendent, is constantly in communication with some lecturer, musician or entertainer with a view to having a series of lectures or concerts at the reading-rooms. Mr. Busser himself explains this feature of the work as follows: "When I meet a specialist in any subject of interest to our men, as electricity, zoology, botany, mechanics, or a gifted musician, I have the privilege of sending him out to lecture or to sing at the reading-rooms. These entertainments, too, are free to the men and their families. We also have a question drawer in each room, and if the lecturer will permit it many bright questions will be fired at him. The object of all this is to give the men the means of self-development. An intelligent employe is a better employe. We have learned by experience that human life and property are safer in the hands of such men. Statistics show that since the company began to provide its employes with the means of gaining a liberal education and of spending the evenings pleasantly, wrecks on that portion of the road covered by the reading-room system have materially decreased."

WILLIAM H. DUDLEY.

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MEN AND WOMEN OF THE MONTH

Paul Morton

The New Secretary of the Navy

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S selection of Paul Morton, of Chicago, to succeed William H. Moody as Secretary of the Navy is like few other cabinet appointments in American history. Mr. Morton is without legal training and has never held a political office. Yet his appointment meets with general approval in business and political circles. Mr. Morton is one of the most successful railway men in the United States, and the integrity and executive ability he has shown in this business indicate that he will give the Navy Department a thorough business administration. The friendship between him and President Roosevelt dates from a short time after the latter became Governor of New York. When reunions were held with the Rough Riders at Las Vegas, Oklahoma City and Denver, Governor Roosevelt traveled as the guest of Mr. Morton, who also accompanied him on those parts of Mr. Roosevelt's campaign in the West in which the Santa Fe lines were used. Upon these trips each saw in the other the magnetism and the virile qualities he most admires, and a strong friendship resulted. The two men often had warm political discussions, for when Mr. Roosevelt found that the railway official believed that the Democratic party had drifted away from its old-time principles, he undertook to convert Mr. Morton to Republicanism, and ultimately he succeeded. Mr. Morton took the lead among railway men in advocating the passage of the Elkins law, providing for stable freight rates, and he had much to do with the framing of that bill. President Roosevelt was particularly pleased with Morton's boldness in exploiting his views on the logical, though unpopular side of a public question. Mr. Morton inherited a strong inclination toward politics from his father, the late J. Sterling Morton, Secretary of Agriculture under President Cleveland, and having an independent fortune estimated at $2,000,000

PAUL MORTON

he has not hesitated to make the financial sacrifice necessary to accept a portfolio. As second vice-president of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway, his salary amounted to $25,000 a year, whereas his salary as Secretary of the Navy will be only $8,000.

Paul Morton was born in Detroit, May 22, 1857, and went with his parents six months later to Nebraska. He began his railroad career at the age of fifteen as a clerk in the land office of the Burlington System at Burlington, Iowa, and served with this company eighteen years in the capacities of assistant general freight agent, general passenger agent and general freight agent. In 1890 he resigned to become vice-president of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company. In 1895 he withdrew from this company and became second vice-president of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway, the office he leaves to go to the cabinet. He has often declined

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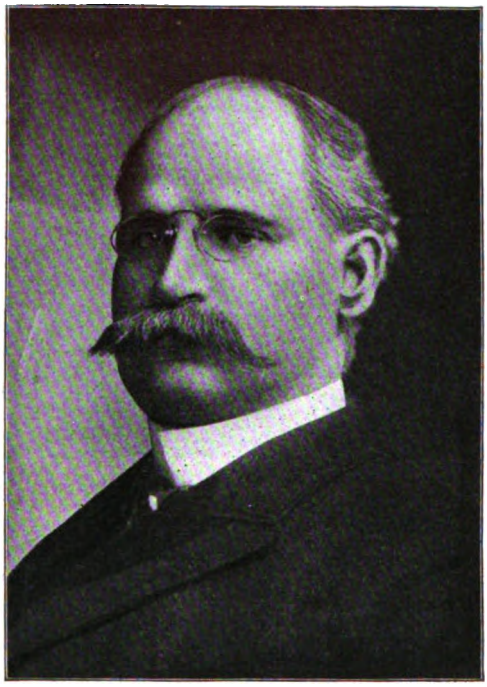
more lucrative offers from other railroads because of his attachment to President Ripley of the Santa Fe.

Victor Howard Metcalf

The New Secretary of Commerce and Labor

IN Congressman Victor H. Metcalf, from the third district of California, President Roosevelt has found a successor to Secretary Cortelyou who as a lawyer ranks with the new Attorney-General, Mr. William H. Moody. He will therefore be competent to dispose of the legal questions constantly confronting the Department of



VICTOR HOWARD METCALF

Commerce and Labor. Mr. Metcalf has long been a prominent attorney of Oakland, California, with a large practice in the settlement of the business of large estates. He entered Congress the same year that David Bremner Henderson of Iowa became Speaker of the House of Representatives. It was through his intimate friendship with Mr. Henderson that he received the introduction that led to his serving on the Naval Construction Committee and the Ways and Means Committee. Had Mr. Metcalf not accepted his present portfolio he would have been sure of reëlection to Congress in 1905. He has always held a safe, conservative Republican majority of about six thousand in a district where the normal majority is four thousand.

Mr. Metcalf was born October 10, 1853, at Utica, New York. In 1871 he graduated from the Utica Free Academy, and the following year from Russell's Military Academy, New Haven, Connecticut. Then he matriculated at Yale with the class of 1876, but transferred to the law department in 1875, and graduated with the degree of LL.B. in 1876. Admitted to the New York bar in 1877, he practiced in Utica two years. Then he moved to Oakland, and in 1881 formed there with George Dickinson Metcalf the law partnership that is still known as Metcalf & Metcalf. Secretary Metcalf is a keen sportsman, being almost as fond of duck-shooting as Grover Cleveland.

Peter Joseph Osterhaus

German Hero of the American Civil War

THE enthusiasm with which the American people have greeted General Osterhaus on his visit to this country after an absence of many years, shows how well remembered are his services. Returning to visit the St. Louis Fair and his old comrades in arms after living the life of a manufacturer in Mannheim, Germany, for nearly a quarter of a century, he appeared as a patriarch in gatherings of Grand Army men. General Osterhaus was born in Coblentz, Germany, January 4, 1823, but came to the United States and settled in St. Louis in 1849. When the Civil War broke out he entered the Union service commissioned as major of a battalion of the Second Missouri Infantry. He took part in the battle of Wilson's Creek, Missouri, August 10, 1861, and was soon after promoted colonel of the Twelfth Missouri Regiment. In the battle of Pea Ridge, Arkansas, he commanded the first division of the corps under General Curtis and later one of the three divisions of the Army of the Southwest. In June, 1862, he was appointed brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded the ninth division of the Thirteenth Army Corps, Army of the Tennessee, in the attack on Arkansas Post and in the Vicksburg campaign. In May, 1863, he captured Port Gibson in coöperation with General John E. Smith's brigade. He commanded the

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first division, Fifteenth Army Corps, of the army under Grant in the operations against Chattanooga, November 23-25, 1863. He made a brilliant charge against the southern wing of the Confederate army stationed on Missionary Ridge, driving the enemy from the summit and taking thousands of prisoners. He commanded the first division, Fifteenth Army Corps, in the Atlanta campaign, May 3 to September 8, 1863, and during the absence of General Logan, the whole Fifteenth Army Corps, Army of the Tennessee, September, 1864, to January, 1865. During the Mobile campaign and at the surrender of General E. Kirby Smith's army, General Osterhaus was chief of staff to General E. R. S. Canby. Thenceforth, until he was mustered out in January, 1866, he commanded the military district of Mississippi.

On leaving the army he went as United States consul to Lyons, France, filling this office from 1866 to 1877. Then he engaged at New York city in manufacturing and exporting hardware. In 1881 he returned to his native land and continued the same business at Mannheim.

The Countess of Aberdeen

President of the International Council of Women

AT the last quinquennial convention of the International Council of Women, recently held at Berlin, Lady Aberdeen was elected to the presidency of the organization, an office which she had held during the period 1893-1899. Lady Aberdeen's distinction in many lines of sociological work will make the Council much more influential under her administration. The Countess possesses rare executive ability, great capacity for work and the broadest sympathies. Her labors for the good of the Canadian people during her husband's Governor-Generalship of the Dominion received a fit tribute in the words in which the city council of Toronto, in 1895, recorded "its grateful appreciation of the zeal, the unfailing tact, the administrative ability and devotion to the cause of humanity by which Her Excellency, the Countess of Aberdeen, has endeared herself to the hearts of the women of the Dominion." She is an excellent speaker, one of her notable public addresses being "The University and Its Effect on the Woman," delivered at the eighteenth quarterly convocation of the University of Chicago, April, 1897. In the United States, she was elected president of the International Women's Health Protective League. In acknowledgment of her services in Canada, the Queen's University, at Kingston, conferred on her the honorary degree of LL.D. She has published "Through Canada with a Kodak" and "The International Congress of Women" (1900), while her public address on "The Irish Literary Revival" created much interest. This address grew out of her sympathetic efforts in Ireland to promote home industries among the poorer people and thus improve their social and economic condition.

ISHBEL MARIA, COUNTESS OF ABERDEEN

Edwin Anderson Alderman

President of the University of Virginia

THE election of the well-known speaker, lecturer and educator, Dr. Edwin A. Alderman, from the presidency of Tulane University to that of the University of Virginia, is highly pleasing to southern people. This for the reason that Dr. Alderman is a thorough Southerner by birth, education and life-work. He was born at Wilmington, North Carolina, in 1861, and grad-

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EDWIN ANDERSON ALDERMAN

uated with the degree of Ph.B. from the University of North Carolina in 1882. He is the author of a school history of his native state. He received the degree of Doctor of Civil Law from the University of the South and LL.D. from Tulane University in 1898 and from Johns Hopkins University in 1902. He began his career as an educator in the capacity of principal of the Goldsboro city schools in 1884. He was Assistant State Superintendent of North Carolina 1889-92, and for the four years following was professor of pedagogy at the University of North Carolina. After serving as president of the same institution until 1900, he became president of Tulane. His election to the University of Virginia is doubly flattering, for not only is the university the most distinguished of southern schools, but hitherto it has never had a president.

Ion Perdicaris

Whose Imprisonment by Moorish Bandits Almost Caused International Complications

ION PERDICARIS, who was recently released from captivity by the Moorish bandit chief Raisuli, is a Greek by birth and parentage, but, thanks to American missionaries, he was brought to New Jersey when a child. He was educated at Harvard University with the intention of entering the ministry—a purpose that was soon abandoned. He studied art, and showed considerable talent as a painter. For some years he was known in New York city as a clever playwright. As a man of wealth, Mr. Perdicaris traveled widely before he settled at Tangier, Morocco. He married an English widow a few years ago, whose son, Cromwell Varley, a British subject, shared Mr. Perdicaris' captivity. The Perdicaris villa, standing on an eminence about four miles inland from Tangier, is noted among tourists and diplomats of all nations for its hospitality. Though Mr. Perdicaris has suffered many hardships during his recent captivity, he does not seem to bear Raisuli any ill will. His keen sense of the romantic has evidently been appealed to by his adventure in the wilds of the Beni Arrez Mountains, where, he was informed, no European had set foot before. He and Varley were provided with a handsome tent after the third day of captivity, and were allowed to communicate daily with the household at Tangier through messengers, until Secretary Hay's demand "Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead" spurred the feeble Moorish government to action.

MISS MAY SUTTON

The California girl who won the women's national championship in tennis. Miss Sutton is only seventeen years old, but defeated veteran players with surprising ease.

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THE WORLD'S THOUGHT

CRITICAL ESTIMATES OF ANSWERS TO LIVE QUESTIONS

A Good Word for the American Soldier

"THE American soldier is as perfect as he can be made under existing circumstances." So says Mr. A. Henry Savage Landor in a recent number of the *North American Review*. We do not know exactly what modification Mr. Landor has in mind by "existing circumstances." To judge from the context, it may have reference to the fact that the soldier is obliged to buy his liquor at a saloon rather than at a canteen. Whatever the reference may be, however, the sentence is worth pondering, for it is not the outcome of ebullient chauvinism but of careful, impartial observation. The real difference between the American and the German soldier is the difference between two different social ideals. The American soldier has no goose step, but neither has he officers who belong to an arrogant social class. He may himself be an officer if he works for the honor. We do not want to fight and it is shameful even to consider the possibility of fighting. But it is a great satisfaction in the event of such a misfortune to remember our independent, rough-spoken, resourceful and unconventional defenders. Suppose we let some of them share in the hero-worship we are according the Japanese.

"The Mere Constructive Faculty"

HUGH CLIFFORD, in the June number of the *North American Review*, writes in a highly appreciative way of the literary work of Joseph Conrad. Literary enthusiasms of such sort are highly commendable, but most of us will be rather at a loss to discover exactly what is meant by this sentence: "Mr. Conrad proved himself to be independent of the mere constructive faculty." If this means simply that Mr. Conrad finds himself in no need of a plot, it is reasonably intelligible, but why *mere* constructive faculty? Are we about to experience a reaction from our strenuous ambitions? Are those of us who are really trying to accomplish something to be classed among those who are *merely* constructive? Is it atomistic incoherence we are to seek? Is Mr. Clifford among the prophets of literary anarchy? Is destruction bigger and better than construction? These questions may be gratuitous, but they are inevitable. And, on the whole, we are slow to believe that dilettanteism is desirable either in literature or in other walks of life. Most of us would like to be possessed of "the mere constructive faculty."

Criticism for Critics

A FEW months ago Mr. Lorado Taft published a capital work upon American statuary. In it he incidentally urged that instead of finding fault with a certain artist most people would find that "to appreciate his sincere contribution is better business." In the July number of *Scribner's Monthly* Mr. Harry W. Desmond takes Mr. Taft to task for his insistence that criticism means appreciation rather than a discussion of shortcomings. He insists that a critic must at "first, like the surveyor, try firmly to establish his points, his bases for the future measurements of unknown distances," whereby Mr. Desmond means that criticism is something other than "kind words that never die." Following in this suggestion, we would in turn suggest that the first duty of a critic—even if like Mr. Desmond he be a critic of a critic of a critic—is to understand exactly what he criticizes. What Mr. Taft had in mind was undoubtedly the arrogant attitude of certain mutual admiration societies of artists, which exist in certain sections of our country, toward any art which is a little different from that to which they

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have been accustomed. With his rebuke of such a spirit we thoroughly agree, and unless we are mistaken it is one of the very first of the "bases" which the surveyor of esthetic landscapes should fix. To be a critic is not to be either a fault-finder or a flatterer. It is to appreciate the excellences and to point out the shortcomings of some man's work from the point of view of sincerity and beauty.

The Ennui of Eternity

IT is not common to find popular magazines dealing with eternity. In the July *Harper's*, however, Mr. Howells draws an ingenious parallel between going to Europe and going to heaven. In the midst of his discussion he say he fancies "that eternity will pass much more swiftly than most people suppose, for the very reason that there can be no change in it." The sentence has something of the flavor of an Irish bull, but it is worth thinking about. Years ago, a young woman said to one of her teachers that the thought of living always was burdensome to her; at the same time she had never yet seen the time when she wanted to stop living. She was assured that the same desire for procrastination would probably be true of eternity. If Mr. Howells is to be taken seriously as a prophet of the future, it is a nice question whether the young woman's apprehension of everlasting *ennui* might not be justified. Everlasting sameness would certainly pall on one. For our part we are inclined to think that eternity will be quite varied enough to suit any one's tastes. But, as Mr. Howells himself says, "We can not answer with authority!"

As to the Joy of Labor

CONSIDERABLE attention has been attracted by various recent utterances of President Eliot, of Harvard, concerning content in one's work. Especially severe have been some of the criticisms drawn forth by his article in the July number of the *World's Work*. We can all go with President Eliot when he insists that men ought to have satisfaction in their labor, and that employers and employes should coöperate to this end. Probably most of us also can see that theoretically there are elements

A RECOGNIZABLE TRAIT

"That ship neither hoists its flag nor answers our signals."
"It must be English!"

—*Jugend.*

HOW RUSSIA CONDUCTS WAR

"Ammunition?"
"No; pictures of saints!"

—*Simplissimus.*

INTERNATIONAL AMENITIES

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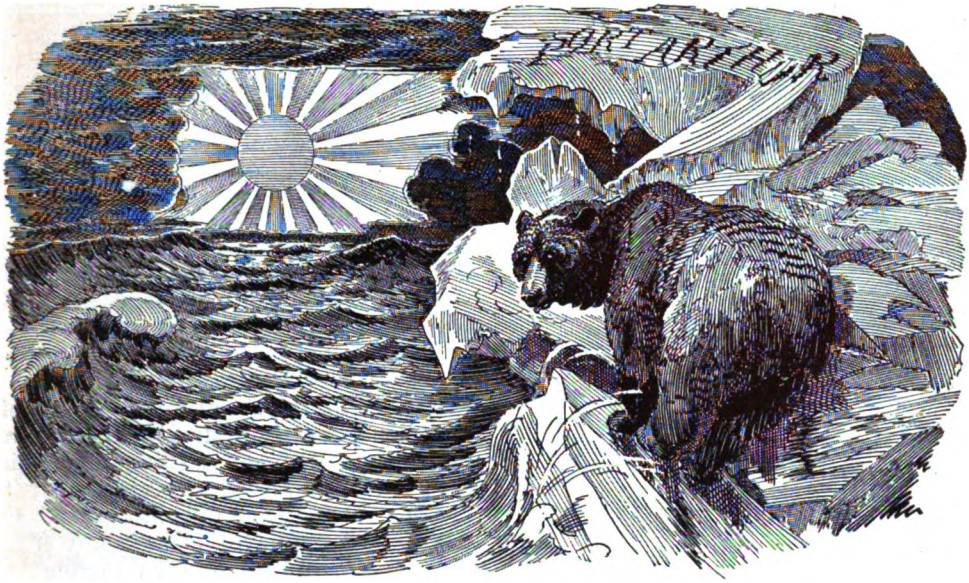

MELTING!

—*London Punch.*

which might cause joy in even the most ordinary routine of life such as President Eliot instances: the replanting of trees and the running of a motor car. But what ought to be is not what really is. Does a college professor or even a college president enjoy reading examination papers? A man can enjoy work when his work is of a sort that he can enjoy. The tragedy of our social life is that so much of the work that *must* be done is of a sort that brutalizes the man that does it. Culture still has unpaid debts to labor.

The Antidote for Haeckel

FOR the past few years we have been trying to solve what Haeckel calls the "Riddle of the Universe" by scientific investigation. Metaphysics we have thought were outgrown. The results of such an attitude of mind, so far as belief in a personal God is concerned, may be seen in Haeckel's extraordinary book. A great many of our ministers seem utterly oblivious of the fact that this book is being circulated as a sort of anti-Christian tract. They are also inclined to scoff at the thought that the ordinary man, especially the laboring man, is influenced by what they are pleased to call academic questions. To all such persons we would commend the letters by Lloyd Morgan in the *Contemporary Review* for June. They are addressed to persons who have been thrown into perplexity by Haeckel's work, and show how a thorough-going scientist, such as Mr. Morgan is, may still hold to the theistic interpretation of the world. Two sentences contain the gist of Mr. Morgan's letters: "Why is it that the problem of essence remains unchanged no matter how often the conquest of experience and the advances of science may lead to its restatement? Because it is at heart a metaphysical problem." And Mr. Morgan proceeds to summon metaphysics to the aid of a mind distressed by the facts of science. Remembering Mr. Morgan's position in the scientific world, this appears significant. The metaphysician is not yet outgrown. Facts do not yet carry in themselves their own explanation.

Although all this may be somewhat discouraging to the plain man and woman who looks upon metaphysics with a more or less well-grounded dislike, yet at the same time it is to be borne in mind that interest in the problems suggested by the scientific spirit is also an acquired taste. The main thing for a thoughtful man to bear in mind is that after the ghost has been raised it is a good thing to know some means by which it can be laid.

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BOOKS AND READING

The French Revolution from the Cambridge Point of View*

By Shailer Mathews

With the exception of several books of moderate compass, the literature dealing with the French Revolution during the past few years has been devoted to certain of its aspects. Professor Stephen's great but as yet uncompleted work is an exception to the rule. If this tendency toward specialization has in any way decreased our appreciation of the complicated and colossal period, the present volume is likely to prove a good corrective.

The editors in their preface very properly call attention to the fact that to grasp the real significance of the revolutionary epoch, one must center attention upon the rise of the New France and the fall of Old Poland. In the volume itself the latter subject is given but scant attention, and the general European situation, while not overlooked, is not particularly developed. Especially is this true of British politics. Beyond brief sketches, the discussion of this most important subject is promised in Volume VI and Volume IX of the series. The final chapter of the present work devotes nearly fifty pages to the relation of Europe and the French Revolution, and is an exceedingly comprehensive sketch of the general results of the revolution upon the general European situation till the time of the Directory. Yet at best it is a sketch.

Any student of the French Revolution will discover before he has read many pages that the writers of the present volume are not under the influence of the new school of historians. Their names do, it is true, appear in the elaborate bibliographies appended to the volumes—American writers, by the way, being all but unmentioned—but this is about all the honor accorded them. The Robespierre of the present volume is the Robespierre of the English historian of fifty years ago. The Terror is explicitly denied constructive results, and the success of France is said to have been in spite of the great committee rather than because of it.

Most of the papers indicate a serious lack in another particular. The historian of a revolution may not be a philosopher, but he should at least be accustomed to the study of the social mind. A revolution is not merely a succession of events, it is a change of soul. This psychological aspect of the period the writers of the present volume have failed to grasp. One might read the pages, conscious it is true that great events were happening, but singularly uninformed of the reason why they happened. It is a record of events rather than a study of a revolution. There is, it is true, an introductory chapter upon Philosophy and the Revolution, but its results are practically neglected.

In the history of the Napoleonic era this defect is perhaps less marked. Professor Rose is too good a historian to treat the history of the latter days of the republic in an atomistic fashion. Especially does this appear clearly in his treatment of the Egyptian expedition. This, though brief, gives the reader a singularly good perspective of the motives governing both the Directory and Bonaparte.

As has been remarked in reviewing preceding volumes, the plan of Lord Acton puts a premium upon the monograph rather than connected historical treatment. That this has certain advantages no one would deny, and in the present work it gives us the two excellent chapters upon Revolutionary Finance and upon the French Law in the Age of Revolution. The first covers tolerably familiar ground, but the second by Professor Violett will be a distinct assistance to general students.

It is not every book that is worthy of being criticized from anything more than a conventional point of view. The Cambridge Modern History, however, is laid out upon such magnificent lines and is

*The Cambridge Modern History. Vol. VIII. The French Revolution. New York: The Macmillan Company. xxvii, 875. $4.00.

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altogether so monumental as to challenge the most impartial estimates. Yet even while thus one is constrained to point out what appear to be deficiencies in method, it is only fair to admit that such differences inhere in two conceptions of history writing. As a well-proportioned, trustworthy and reasonably vivid account of the main events from 1787 to 1800, the present volume is far and away the best comprehensive treatment at our disposal. It is not a philosophy of history, it is not a story book, but it is precisely what it intends to be: a series of general studies which together make up a work of reference that will appeal to a man of culture, whether or not as a historical student he is specially at home in the period treated.

Painters Since Leonardo: Being a History of Painting from the Renaissance to the Present Day. By James William Pattison. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co. Pp. vii, 287. $4 net.

Mr. Pattison, a well-known writer upon art, in the present volume gives a series of brief estimates of artists since the days of Leonardo. The volume is beautifully illustrated with reproductions of the works of the painters whom Mr. Pattison discusses. It is written by a man with a temperament as well as a knowledge of art. Elihu Vedder is dismissed in seven lines and a half as one who "by means of mysticism catches the attention of people who do not object to his paucity of painter qualities," while William M. Chase is given three pages as "a painter artist." Mr. Pattison loves sincerity and beauty. He has his enthusiasms and he has his dislikes; he also has a most engaging way of expressing both. As a result the volume possesses strong individuality, and besides being informing is good reading rather after the journalistic fashion. It is not a treatise on art, but will lead the lay reader to appreciate some of the strongest characteristics of the artists of five centuries as Mr. Pattison sees them. He can hardly expect all of his decisions to receive unanimous approval, but they will certainly help any one who is ready to be helped.

Working with the Hands. By Booker T. Washington. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. 246. $1.50.

This volume is largely a history of the work of the Tuskegee Institute. Quite a complete outline of the subjects taught in each department is given and a portion of the book might be termed a Tuskegee catalogue. The moral value of hand work, the religious training at Tuskegee and the work of Mrs. Washington in the mothers' meetings in the town of Tuskegee are discussed in an entertaining manner. There are some repetitions and most of the contents not descriptive of the work at the Tuskegee Institute has appeared previously in a different form. Those who are familiar with Mr. Washington's previous volumes, his lectures and the proceedings of the annual Tuskegee conferences, will find little that is new. The English is pure, the style attractive and the illustrations are good. It will not arouse the same degree of interest as did "Up From Slavery," but should be read by all who are interested in the education of the Negro.

Physical Training for Children by Japanese Methods. By H. Irving Hancock. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. ix, 153. $1.25 net.

In this volume the author by the aid of photographs and of very explicit directions lays before his readers the method of exercise — *jin jitsu* — which just now is attracting considerable attention. As the exercise makes practically no demands for apparatus, it is something which may well be commended to school teachers and parents. Wholly apart from what it has to say upon any particular form of exercise, the volume contains a good deal of valuable information as regards proper food and ways of living.

A Texas Matchmaker. By Andy Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 1, 355. $1.50.

It is not often that a man who, like Andy Adams, has been a cowboy all his life, makes a successful entrance into the world of literature. "The Log of a Cowboy," which appeared something like a year ago, showed that the author had singular power in presenting the facts of the earlier days on the plains. The present volume is rather more ambitious and lacks something of the vigor of its predecessor. In fact, the first half of the volume barely misses being uninteresting. The second half, however, in a way atones for the first, and the story has the merit of entering fresh fields. The matchmaker is an old Texan rancher who is determined to have his men fall in love and marry. The story includes most incidents of a cowboy's life, and at times gives the reader plenty of excitement. Like "The Log of a Cowboy," it is free from any literary tricks and is told in the straightforward style of the camp fire.

The Penobscot Man. By Fanny Hardy Eckstrom. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. xii, 326. $1.25.

Of late years the cowboy has rather obscured the Yankee in fiction. In this volume of stories, however, we have sung the praise not always of the Yankee, it is true, but of the Maine lumberman, and the Maine lumberman may be Indian, Yankee, Nova Scotian or French Canadian. And the adventures of these men and their indifference to death are quite as thrilling as anything that can be related of the men of the plains. The volume will appeal with special force to all those to whom the words Piscataquis and Katahdin bring pictures of the wilderness.

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Love Among the Ruins. By Warrick Deeping. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 3, 249. $1.50.

Warrick Deeping achieved a decided success in his "Uther and Igraine" published a few months since. His new volume is possessed of even greater power. It is built, however, on much the same lines. There are in it the same sacks of cities, the same murders, and the story again circles around a girl who is driven from her home into the forest by the burning of her home. That which is a distinct addition to the first published story is the rising of the populace of a city against the king and feudal rulers. The story has a plot on rather larger lines and the characters have stepped farther out from the canvas. There is in it also the suggestion of symbolism that makes it something more than a romance. The effort of an outlawed prince to raise the populace against the privileged class, the use of the heroine as a sort of figurehead of the revolution, the revolt of the heroine and the triumph of the old order — do not these suggest a social theory? If the author does not yield to the seductions of continuous publication he will go far.

The Flame Gatherers. By Margaret Horton Potter. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 3, 417. $1.50.

Miss Potter has shown a singular ability to pass from one historical situation and age to another. It is a far cry from "Uncanonized" to her latest volume, but there is also an advance in many particulars. The pages of the newer volume are not as loaded with historical minutiæ, and she has succeeded better in keeping the local and historical coloring in the background. As a result interest is more centered upon the story. The story itself is one that really calls for Maurice Hewlett. The elemental oriental passion as it appears throughout its pages is sometimes chilled by the frequently conventionalized treatment. At the same time the story is full of feeling and of power. Only its characters are so far removed from the modern reader as to be dangerously near uninteresting. It is an achievement rather than a success. Now that Miss Potter has shown her versatility in historical novels, it is to be hoped that she will give us a story of modern life.

Fiction.

Hallie Ermine Rives has made the story of Lord Byron the material for a novel of considerable influence. In "The Castaway" (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, $1 net), she has not hesitated to show the darkest side of the poet's character, but at the same time has made him appeal to our sympathy. The book is clearly intended to serve as a sort of justification of the poet. The sad circumstances in which he grew up, the temptations that surrounded him, the harsh judgments which were passed upon him, his generosity and bravery are all grouped so as to leave a very different impression upon the reader than that made by some of the numerous lives of the poet. The novel follows the general outline of Byron's life and closes with his death in Greece. It is a capital illustration of how a novelist may make a historical person even more real than the historian himself.

"The Commuter's Wife" is an American Elizabeth, only instead of being self centered, she is thoroughly helpful. Like her German prototype Barbara is domestic. In fact her books are increasingly studies in domestic problems. In her third book, "The Woman Errant" (The Macmillan Company, $1.50), she is still interested in the problem of the educated woman and draws the contrasting pictures of a young woman who takes up a man's work and another who decides to be married. She even has a good word for Mrs. Jenks-Smith, upon whom she had been inclined to be a trifle severe in her previous stories. "The Woman Errant" is an interesting study of the various types of women and is well worth reading. It lacks, however, some of the charm of the author's earlier books, because perhaps we have less in it of the author and more the study of other people.

Biography

Royalty is always interesting and the books about persons of high estate have of late had especial vogue. Helene Vacaresco has added to the rapidly growing literature of court gossip her volume "Kings and Queens I Have Known" (Harpers, $2 net). The author is a lady in waiting of the Queen of Roumania. She has met practically all the crowned heads of Europe, and in the present volume she relates her conversations with them and tells some anecdotes about them. The book adds nothing of importance to our knowledge of its characters, but may serve to give us a larger appreciation of the fact that the present rulers of Europe are actually human and possessed of more than an ordinary share of human virtues.

D. C. Heath & Co. are publishing under the general editorship of George P. Baker "The Belles Lettres Series." The series will appear in several sections. The third deals with English dramatists from the beginning to the present day, and two volumes reach us, one under the editorship of Austin Dobson containing Goldsmith's "The Good-Natured Man" and "She Stoops to Conquer," and another edited by Professor Schelling containing Jonson's "Eastward Ho," and "The Alchemist." These little volumes are beautiful illustrations of printer's work, and at the same time are equally good illustrations of editorial oversight. They represent the oldest text, and even the original spelling. For the student of English literature they will prove a veritable boon, both in themselves and in their price (sixty cents each). For use in schools and colleges they are superior to anything with which we are acquainted. Each volume has a life of the author, a general introduction to the plays, a bibliography, a glossary, and a series of genuinely helpful notes.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Cabinet.—July 1.—Paul Morton, of Chicago, the new Secretary of the Navy; Victor H. Metcalf, of Oakland, California, the new Secretary of Commerce and Labor, and William H. Moody, the new Attorney-General, took the oath of office.

Canal Zone.—June 24.—President ordered the Dingley tariff rates extended to and postoffices established in the canal zone.

Casualties.—June 15.—The steamer General Slocum was destroyed by fire in Hell Gate, in East River, New York. A large church excursion was on board. Nine hundred and thirty-eight bodies were recovered from the wreck, leaving ninety-three persons unaccounted for.

—June 16.—The state and municipal authorities in New York began to investigate the disaster on the excursion steamer General Slocum. District Attorney Jerome, Coroner Berry of the Bronx, Coroner O'Gorman of Manhattan, Mayor McClellan and Police Commissioner McAdoo took personal charge of the investigation.

—June 21.—President Roosevelt appointed a commission, headed by George B. Cortelyou, to investigate the Slocum disaster.

—July 3.—Fifteen passengers were killed and thirty-nine injured in the wreck of a Chicago-St. Louis excursion train on the Wabash road near Litchfield, Illinois.

—July 4.—Fifty-two persons were killed and 3,049 injured as a result of Fourth of July fireworks.

—July 10.—Sixteen persons were killed and fifty-eight wounded in a train collision on the Erie railroad at Midvale, New Jersey.

Deaths.—June 9.—Levi Z. Leiter, Chicago capitalist, died at Bar Harbor, Maine, at the age of seventy years.

—June 10.—Lawrence Hutton, author, died in Princeton, New Jersey.

—June 17.—Rear-Admiral James A. Greer died in Washington.

—June 29.—Former United States Senator John L. Mitchell died at Milwaukee.

Education.—June 30.—The National Educational Association, in session at St. Louis, elected W. H. Maxwell, superintendent of instruction of New York, president of the organization.

Labor.—June 7.—A combination of militia, vigilance committees and a sheriff's posse controlled the Cripple Creek district, Colorado.

—June 8.—Two sharp skirmishes occurred at Victor, Colorado, between union miners and the militia, a union leader, John Carley, being killed. Also eight masked men wrecked the plant of the Victor *Record*, the organ of the Western Federation of Miners. Teller county was put under martial law.

—June 8.—A battle occurred between militia and striking miners near Dunnville. The miners, from intrenchments in the hills, fired on the troops, who, under General Bell, charged the miners, killing one and capturing fourteen.

—June 9.—The Colorado Citizens' Alliance decreed that every person in the Cripple Creek valley connected with a labor organization must renounce such allegiance or quit the valley forever. General Bell closed the Portland mine at Victor on the ground that in employing union labor it harbored "dangerous and lawless men."

—June 14.—Eighty-seven warrants, charging murder, were placed in the hands of the sheriff at Denver, Colorado, to be served on union miners, in connection with the dynamite outrage at Independence station and in the subsequent rioting at Victor, Colorado.

—June 15.—Federal Judge A. M. Thayer, of St. Louis, issued a writ of habeas corpus commanding that Charles H. Moyer, president of the Western Federation of Miners, for months held prisoner in the "bull-pen" at Telluride, Colorado, be brought before him July 5. The militia turned Moyer over to the civil authorities.

—July 1.—President Charles H. Moyer and Secretary Haywood, of the Western Federation of Miners, and forty-six others were indicted by the coroner's jury on charges of murder and inciting to the riot in Victor, Colorado, on June 6, in which Roscoe McGee and John Davis were killed.

—July 5.—After serving 103 days in the bull-pen and in jail, President Charles H. Moyer, of the Western Federation of Miners, was released on $10,000 bonds on the charges of murder and inciting riot, filed against him at Cripple Creek.

Great Lakes.—June 14.—The strike of the Masters and Pilots' Association on the Great Lakes, after lasting six weeks and affecting 204,600 workers, 3,000 vessels and $250,000,000 of invested capital, was brought to an end. The masters and pilots surrendered to the Lake Carriers' Association.

Lake Superior Corporation.—June 9.—The stockholders of the Lake Superior Corporation, which is the reorganized Consolidated Lake Superior Company, the $100,000,000 trust that failed in October, 1903, met in New York city and elected officers as follows: President, Charles D. Warren, president of the Traders' Bank, of Toronto; vice-presidents, Charles E. Orvis, of New York, and Thomas J. Drummond, of Montreal; treasurer, John T. Terry, Jr., New York. F. H. Clergue, of Sault Ste. Marie, formerly general manager of the Consolidated Lake Superior Company, was elected a member of the board of directors.

Land Rush.—July 5.—The rush for the newly opened Rosebud Indian Reservation lands began.

Lynching.—June 15.—A negro woman was lynched at Lebanon Junction, Kentucky, for the murder of John Irwin, a wealthy white farmer ....Jonah Woods, a negro, was lynched at Lagrange, Georgia, by other negroes whom he had threatened to report to the grand jury for playing craps.

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—June 26.—Starling Dunham, a negro accused of attacking young white women, was lynched at Europa, Mississippi, the noose being placed about his neck by one of the girls he attacked.

Navy.—July 2.—The new armored cruiser Colorado attained on its unofficial, or builders' trial trip, a speed of 22.31 knots an hour.

Politics.—June 9.—Attorney-General Philander C. Knox was chosen by the Republican leaders of Pennsylvania to succeed Matthew S. Quay in the United States Senate.

—June 10.—Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, appointed Attorney-General Knox to succeed the late Matthew S. Quay in the United States Senate.

—June 14.—The Illinois Democratic convention nominated its entire ticket by acclamation in forty minutes. Lawrence B. Stringer was nominated for Governor.

—June 16.—Secretary George B. Cortelyou resigned from the Department of Commerce and Labor to become Chairman of the National Republican Committee.

—June 17.—Elihu Root was chosen for temporary chairman of the National Republican Committee. The committee, by a unanimous vote, decided the Wisconsin contest in favor of the "stalwarts," rejecting the claims of the La Follette delegates.

—June 21.—The Republican National Convention met in Chicago and was addressed by Elihu Root as temporary chairman and committees were appointed.

—June 22.—The Republican National Convention adopted a platform and was addressed by Speaker Joseph G. Cannon as permanent chairman.

—June 23.—Roosevelt and Fairbanks were unanimously nominated by the Republican National Convention.

—June 23.—George B. Cortelyou was elected Chairman of the Republican National Committee.

—June 30.—The Prohibition National Convention nominated Rev. Silas C. Swallow, of Pennsylvania, for President, and George W. Carroll, of Texas, for Vice-President.

—July 5.—The Populist National Convention opened in Springfield, Illinois, with only 200 of the 500 delegates present.

—July 6.—The Populist National Convention nominated Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, for President, and Thomas H. Tibbles, of Nebraska, for Vice-President.

—July 6.—The National Democratic Convention opened at St. Louis.

—July 6.—The Republican party celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its birth "under the oaks," at Jackson, Michigan. Secretary Hay was the orator of the occasion.

—July 9.—The Democratic national convention nominated Judge Alton B. Parker for president.

—July 10.—The Democratic national convention ended its work by nominating Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia, for vice-president.

Red Cross.—June 16.—The Red Cross Society accepted the resignations of all its officers, including the acting president, Mrs. John A. Logan. The following new officers were elected: W. K. Van Ruypen, of Washington, D. C., president; Surgeon-General Walter Wyman, Washington, vice-president; Richard Olney, Massachusetts, counselor; J. W. Crawford, Washington, secretary; W. J. Flather, Washington, treasurer; and Admiral George Dewey, General Nelson A. Miles, D. Wyman, Dr. J. W. O'Neill and S. D. Hege, executive committee.

Trust Sale.—July 2.—Judge Lanning signed a final decree in the United States Circuit Court at Trenton, New Jersey, ordering a sale of the United States Shipbuilding Company in the foreclosure proceedings instituted by the Merchant Trust Company and the New York Security and Trust Company on the two mortgages held by them for $16,000,000 and $10,000,000, respectively, ten days being allowed the Shipbuilding Company to turn over the total amount due on the two mortgages.

Wireless Telegraphy.— June 25.— President Roosevelt appointed Rear-Admirals Robley D. Evans and H. N. Manney, Brigadier-General A. W. Greely, Lieutenant-Commander J. L. Jayne and Professor Willard L. Moore as a board to consider government control of wireless telegraphy.

Alaska

Judiciary.—June 19.—Special Assistant Attorney-General W. A. Day was detailed to investigate the alleged scandals in the judiciary of Alaska.

Philippine Islands

Army.—June 16.—Major-General H. C. Corbin was ordered to command the Division of the Philippines, succeeding Major-General J. F. Wade, the order to take effect in October, 1904.

Deaths.—June 26.—Archbishop Guidi, apostolic delegate to the Philippines, died in Manila.

Cuba

Congress.—June 8.—The Cuban senate ratified the Isle of Pines treaty.

Casualties.—June 16.—A cyclone wrought havoc in Santiago and Guantanamo, killing 100 people.

San Domingo

Revolution.—June 8.—After a declaration of peace and a truce of less than a week, a new revolution broke out in San Domingo. The government troops sustained a severe defeat at Monte Cristi.

—June 14.—The insurgents surrendered the town of Monte Cristi to the Dominican government forces.

Hayti

Violence.—June 23.—Palace guards stoned the French and German ministers to Hayti in the streets of Port au Prince.

—June 24.—The Haytian government apologized for the stoning of the French and German ministers. France, however, decided to send a warship to demand redress, though Germany seemed to be satisfied with an apology.

Mexico

Brigands.—June 26.—Within a fortnight ten Americans were kidnapped and held for ransom or killed by a band of Mexicans on the border between Mexico and Texas.

Panama

Canal.—June 18.—The government of the canal zone and that of Panama agreed on the limits of the zone and of the cities of Panama and Colon.

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Money.—June 20.—The joint American and Panama commission recommended that the gold currency of the United States should be the legal tender in Panama and in the canal zone.

—June 28.—President Amador signed the monetary bill. It practically established the gold standard, and provided for a coin to be called the "balboa," equal to the American dollar, or two silver pesos.

Peru

Diplomacy.—June 23.—Dr. John Frederick Elmore was appointed Peruvian minister at Washington.

President.—June 12.—Serapio Calderon was elected president of Peru.

Uruguay

Revolution.—June 22.—In a desperate battle at Tapumbac, province of Rivera, Uruguay, the government forces, under General Saravia, were defeated by the insurgents with the loss of 600 killed and 800 wounded, and a large quantity of arms and ammunition. The rebels lost 100 killed and 600 wounded.

—June 24.—The insurgents were defeated with the loss of 600 men by Colonel Galarza at Cerro Largo.

Argentine Republic

President.—June 12.—Manuel Quintana was elected president of the Argentine Republic, and Figueroa Alcorta was elected vice-president.

—June 13.—An insurrection broke out in the Province of San Luis, and the governor was imprisoned.

British Empire

Casualties.—June 28.—The Norwegian steamer Norge was wrecked at Rockall Reef, 290 miles off the west coast of Scotland, while *en route* from Copenhagen to New York. Over six hundred emigrants were killed.

—July 5.—Seventeen more survivors of the Norge wreck arrived at Aberdeen, Scotland, making the total number of rescued 145; 627 being still missing.

Curzon.—July 2.—Lord Curzon, of Kedleston, Viceroy of India, was installed at Dover as lord warden of the Cinque Ports.

Deaths.—June 25.—Clement Scott, the dramatic critic, died in London.

—July 1.—George Frederick Watts, the celebrated English painter, died in London at the age of eighty-seven years.

Politics.—June 17.—In the by-election in the Harborough division of Leicestershire yesterday, Hon. Philip James Stanhope, Liberal, youngest son of Earl Stanhope, was elected to the House of Commons, receiving 7,843 votes, against 6,110 cast for C. H. Dixon, the Conservative candidate.

Protest.—June 13.—The British government formally protested to the United States government against the law, passed at the last session of Congress, applying the coastwise laws of the United States to the trade with the Philippines.

Canada

Militia.—June 15.—Lord Dundonald was dismissed from his office as Commander-in-Chief of the Canadian militia for publicly criticizing the Minister of Agriculture.

British South Africa

Chinese Labor.—June 22.—The first batch of Chinese laborers, numbering 299, arrived at Johannesburg and were sent to work in the Comet mine, on the East Rand.

British Somaliland

Mullah.—July 2.—The so-called Mad Mullah took the field with 6,000 followers, encamping near Nogal.

France

Bribery.—June 14.—The French Chamber of Deputies appointed a committee to investigate the charges of bribery in connection with the Carthusian order.

—July 6.—The parliamentary committee exonerated Prèmier Emile Combes and his son, Edgar Combes, of the charge of accepting a bribe from the Chartreuse monks.

Deaths.—July 2.—Señor Henrique Dupuy de Lome, who was Spanish minister to Washington until three months before the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, died in Paris.

Holland

See Dutch East Indies.

Dutch East Indies

Achinese Rebellion.—June 20.—The Dutch troops attacked the Achinese rebels at Likat, North Achin, Sumatra, slaughtering 432 natives, including 281 women and eighty-eight children, and wounding fifty-four and taking seventeen prisoners. The Dutch commander, a lieutenant, two sergeants and thirteen soldiers were wounded.

—June 23.—The Dutch attacked the Achinese at Langatbars, killing 654, including 186 women and 130 children, and wounding forty-nine. Twenty-eight prisoners were taken. The Dutch captain, twenty-two soldiers and six coolies were wounded.

Italy

Guiana.—June 13.—King Victor Emanuel decided in favor of Great Britain in the Anglo-Brazilian dispute over the Guiana frontier.

Spain

Extradition.—June 16.—King Alfonso, of Spain, signed an extradition treaty between Spain and the United States.

Casualties.—June 23.—Thirty persons were killed in a train which was thrown from the bridge over the Jiloca River, in the Province of Ternel, Spain.

German Empire

Reichstag.—June 16.—The Reichstag expunged from the law establishing mercantile arbitration tribunals the provision for a female ballot, which was adopted against the protest of the government on the second reading, and passed the law. The Reichstag adjourned to November 29.

Women.—June 13.—The International Women's Congress began its session in Berlin.

Austria-Hungary

Deaths.—July 3.—Dr. Theodor Herzl, leader of the Zionist movement, died in Vienna.

Immigration.—June 15.—The Hungarian premier declared in the diet the government's intention to restrict immigration.

Russian Empire

Casualties.—June 29.—The Russian submarine boat Delfin sank at its moorings at Kronstadt, Lieutenant Cherkasoff and twenty men being drowned.

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—June 29.—A tornado killed 195 persons and injured ninety-eight at Moscow.

—July 3.—Czar Nicholas personally donated $50,000 for the relief of sufferers by the tornado at Moscow.

Jews.—June 13.—The Council of the Russian Empire approved the bill repealing the law which forbade Jews to live within thirty miles of the Russian frontier.

Poland.—June 17.—The governor-general of Warsaw was stricken with paralysis on receiving news of Bobrikoff's assassination.

Treaty.—June 25.—Ambassador McCormick and Foreign Minister Lamsdorf signed the Russo-American corporation treaty.

Finland

Bobrikoff.—June 16.—General Count Bobrikoff, Russian governor-general of Finland, was shot to death in the Finnish senate house at Helsingfors. The assassin, a student, son of the Finnish senator Schaumann, immediately committed suicide. The Finnish people had long regarded Count Bobrikoff as their greatest oppressor.

—June 18.—A band of Swedish revolutionists at Helsingfors attacked the office of the governor-general of Finland, killing eighteen employes, including a son of Admiral Pinken. They also attacked and demolished the police offices.

—June 19.—Minister von Plehve recommended that no revenge be taken on the Finnish people for the assassination of General Bobrikoff, but that the latter's policy in Finland be continued.

Turkish Empire

Massacres.—June 26.—It was reported that twenty-eight Armenian villages were destroyed and six hundred persons massacred by Kurds and Turkish soldiers.

Persia

Laboree.—June 16.—Seid, who assassinated Rev. Benjamin W. Laboree, superintendent of the American Mission, March 15, was brought to Tabriz by the British consul for trial.

Morocco

Perdicaris.—June 8.—Rear-Admiral Chadwick sent American marines ashore to guard the Belgian consulate at Tangier. Sultan Aziz promised to accede to all the demands of Raisuli provided Perdicaris and Varley were released.

—June 13.—An attempt was made to kidnap the Italian consul at Tangier.

—June 22.—United States Consul-General Gummere, at Tangier, received instructions from Secretary Hay to demand of the Moorish government either Perdicaris alive or Raisuli dead.

—June 25.—Ion Perdicaris and Cromwell Varley, released by Raisuli after a captivity dating from May 18, returned to their home in Tangier.

—June 29.—The American fleet left Tangier on France's assurance that the Paris government would maintain order. A French zouave regiment was ordered from Algeria to Tangier.

Abyssinia

Treaty.—June 25.—W. J. Ellis sailed from Marseilles for Abyssinia with the commercial treaty between the United States and Abyssinia.

Chinese Empire

See Tibet.

Tibet

War.—June 24.—A Tibetan representative was instructed to confer with the head of the British expedition.

—June 28.—After a fight at Gyangtse, in which a British officer was killed and two officers and five men wounded and the Tibetans suffered severely, the natives requested an armistice pending the arrival of officials to negotiate with Colonel Younghusband.

—July 6.—The British captured the Gyangtse jong from the natives, killing, wounding or capturing the whole garrison of 7,000. The British loss was only one officer, Lieutenant Gurdon, of the Thirty-second Sikhs.

Japan

Bonds.—June 18.—The government's second issue of exchequer bonds was oversubscribed more than three times.

Russo-Japanese War.—June 7.—The Japanese lost three hundred killed and wounded in a skirmish at Saimatze.

—June 14.—Nineteen men were killed and nine wounded by the explosion of a mine on the Japanese transport Taihoku....The Russian Vladivostok fleet, under Vice-Admiral Bezobrazoff, sunk the Japanese transport Hitachi in the Korean Strait, drowning several hundred Japanese soldiers, and disabled the Japanese transport Sado, nearly all on board escaping.

—June 15.—Generals Oku and Nozu defeated the Russians under General Stakelberg at Vafangow, fifty miles north of Kinchow. About one thousand Japanese were killed and wounded. The Russians lost three thousand killed and wounded. The Japanese captured three hundred Russians and fourteen quick-firing guns.

—June 16.—The Russian Vladivostok squadron returned to that harbor from its raid on the Korean coast.

—June 17.—General Kuropatkin left Liaoyang to go to the aid of General Stakelberg.

—June 18.—Admiral Wittsoeft reported that all the damaged Russian ships at Port Arthur had been repaired.

—June 25.—Japanese advance posts on the Tachichiao road repulsed an attack by General Mistchenko.

—June 27.—After a battle lasting two days Japanese armies under Generals Nozu and Oku captured Ta, Motien and Fenshui passes from the Russians. The Russian force at Fenshui comprised seventeen battalions and three regiments of infantry, nine squadrons and one regiment of cavalry and six batteries of field artillery, thirty-six guns in all. At Fenshui the Japanese lost 1,120 killed and wounded....In a night attack on Port Arthur, Admiral Togo sank a Russian guardship and a Russian torpedo-boat destroyer.

—June 31.—The Vladivostok fleet escaped Kamimura a second time in the fog off Tsushima Island, Broughton Channel.

—July 4.—The Russians were repulsed with the loss of two hundred men in an attempt to retake Motien Pass.

—July 4.—Japanese troops captured Miaoture, the first strong fortress south of Dalny.

—July 9.—General Oku captured Kaichou from the Russians after a hard fight.

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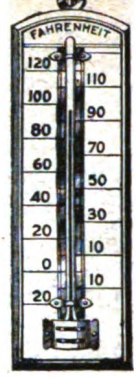

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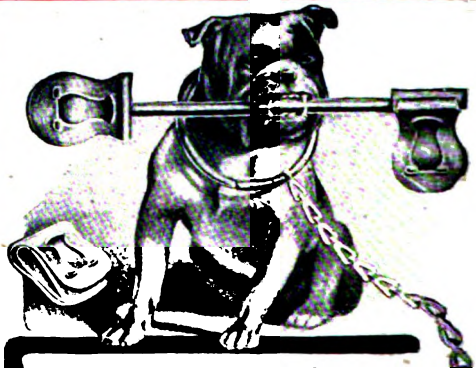

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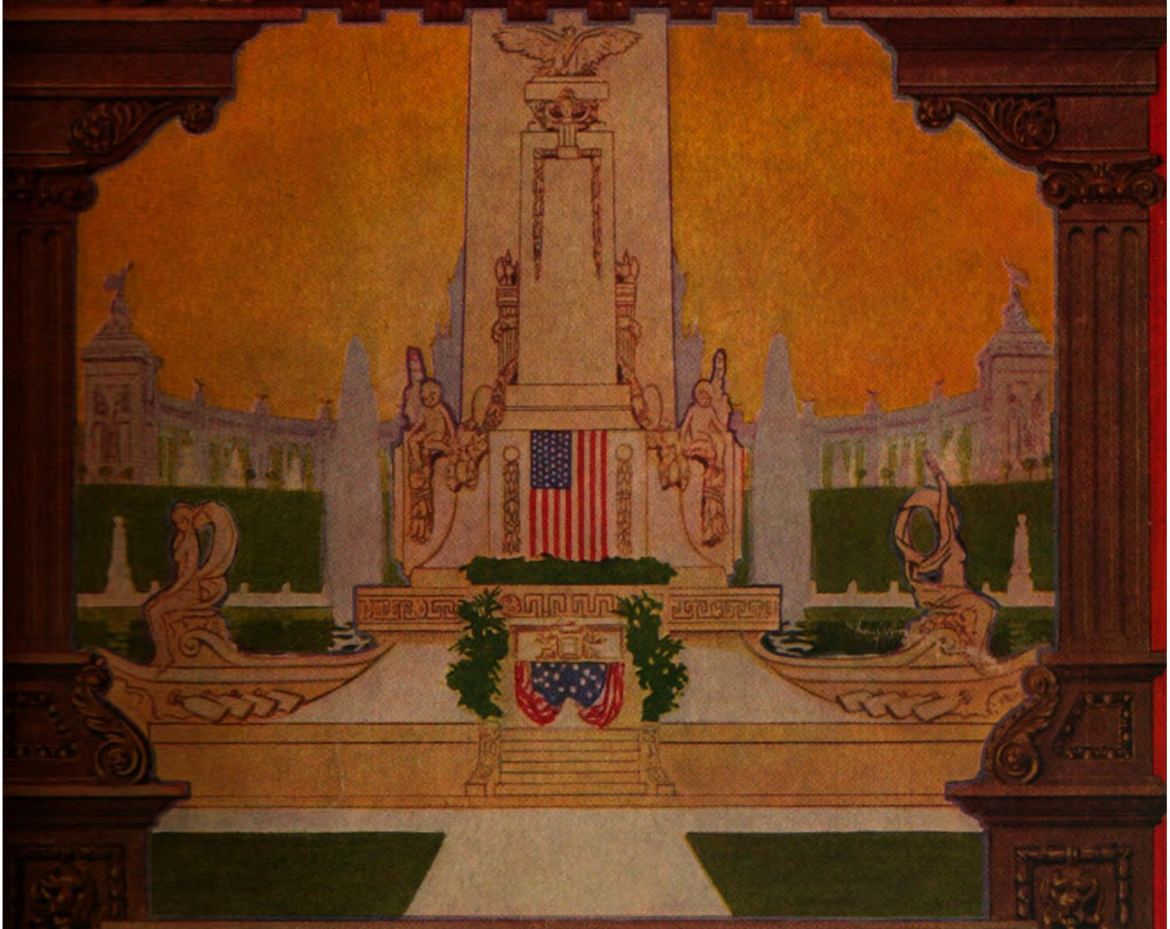

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The World To-Day

VOLUME VII. SEPTEMBER, 1904. NUMBER 3

The Republic That Is An Empire

IT is not so long ago that imperialism was a burning question. Even now there are those who fear the name, and still others who fear that for which they think the name stands. But our distress has become much less intense. The man on horseback has not yet appeared. Civil authority has not yet begun to topple on its pedestal. While we have been discussing, history has been making, and in the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis we have the evidence of the new era into which the United States has entered. It is eminently fitting that this disclosure should be associated with the Louisiana territory. The event which it commemorates was the first great step toward the transformation of a federation into a nation. Its exhibits and its magnitude show how far this nation has progressed since Jefferson dared throw his doctrinaire wisdom to the wind and play the role of statesman. The little line of states fringing the Atlantic has stretched across a hemisphere and the descendant of the embattled farmer greets as fellow citizen men of every race, tongue and color.

The Republic has grown imperial.

* * *

It is a new nation that meets us at St. Louis—a nation that has brought and can bring things to pass. Private persons are still installing their exhibits. The Government building was ready for inspection the day on which the Exposition was opened. At Chicago the sense of world citizenship was stirred by the foreigners on the Midway. At St. Louis the Pike is tame in comparison with our national exhibits, and American citizenship already is world citizenship. In 1893 who dreamed of the Philippines and Panama?

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"Imperialism" should not terrify us. It is true Rome fell after it became an empire, but it was an unconscionable time a-dying. Ancient history is a rather remote source of wisdom, but if we must appeal to it, so far from arguing danger, it promises hope. The best moments of the Roman Empire were those when it was most like the United States. But historical analogies are things to juggle with. They can be left to academic debating clubs. The United States faces the future, not the past. Its bigness, which perhaps is the one great impression made by the Exposition, is not something to cause foreboding. It is simply a measure of a new national responsibility.

* * *

Bigness brings responsibility. To that we all agree. It is responsibility that brings moral strength. In moments of apprehension let us not forget that. Every crisis in the United States has been due to growth, not to decay, and the expanding life that gave the problem has also given the solution. Greater responsibilities find us with larger abilities, stronger ambitions, and an awakened conscience. We are going to be more honest as we grow powerful. We are not yet saints, but we are making matters uncomfortable for rascals. Only a pessimist of unbridled imagination can think otherwise. It is well to remember that the American people can invent cures as rapidly as they can catch diseases; can meet crises as certainly as they can blunder into them. Remember Missouri and Chicago.

* * *

The furor for militarism, like other American enthusiasms, has largely died away. It never was more than a national growing pain. The United States is not and never will become an international bully. China proves that. But the United States has become and is determined to remain an element in international politics. The St. Louis Exposition reveals that. For it shows that the United States itself is international. It is a far cry from the Igorot village to the educational exhibits, but it is not across our own boundaries. And if we are thus imperial, we can not be provincial. We are not jingoes, but neither are we hermits or mere money-makers. Democracy is no more a synonym for isolation than imperialism is for restricted suffrage. A republic is an empire when it takes up an empire's burdens. After St. Louis we shall take foreign politics more seriously. Bigness means international duties.

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THE ILLUMINATION OF FESTIVAL HALL AND THE COLONNADE

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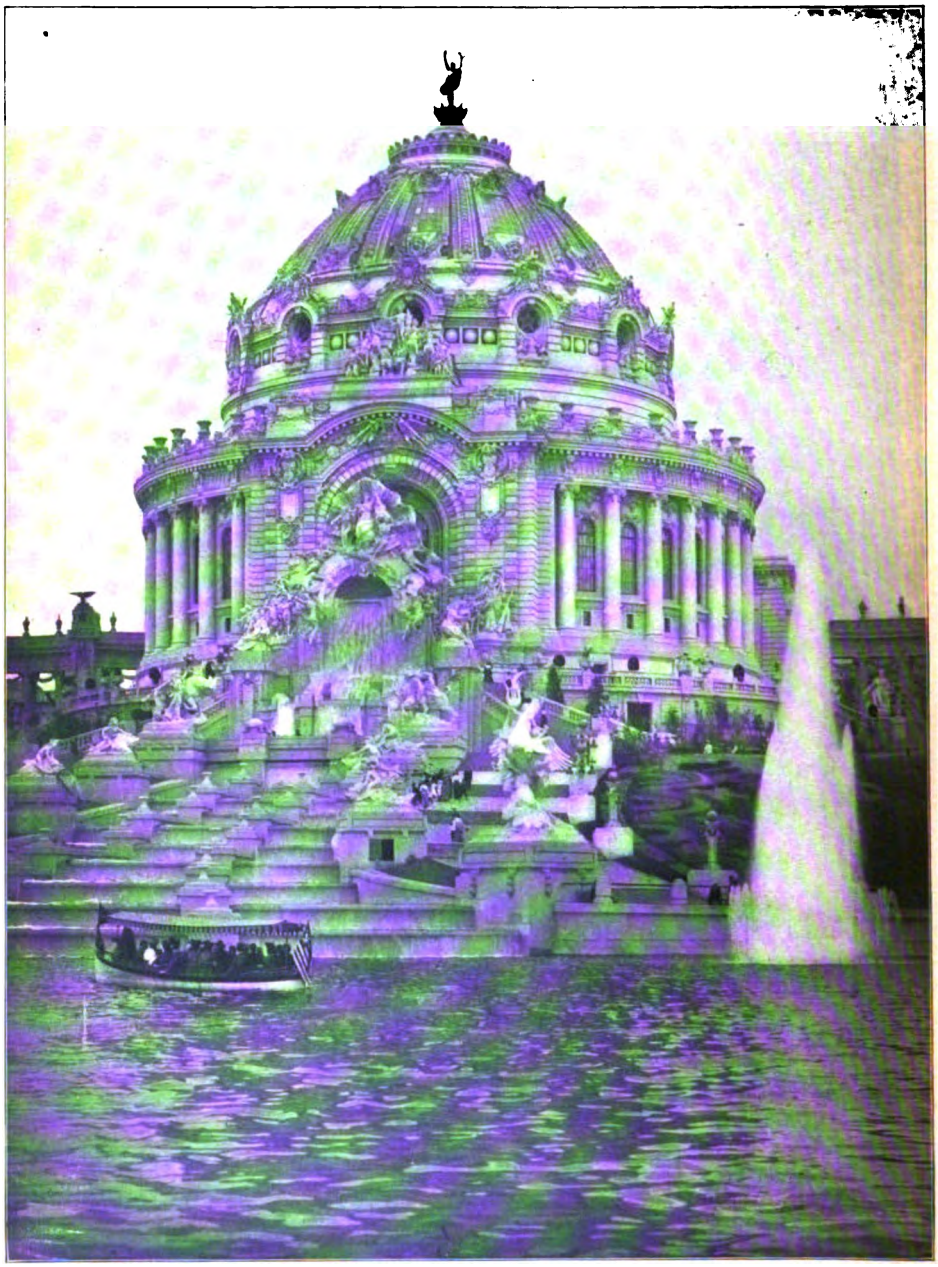

FESTIVAL HALL AND THE CASCADES
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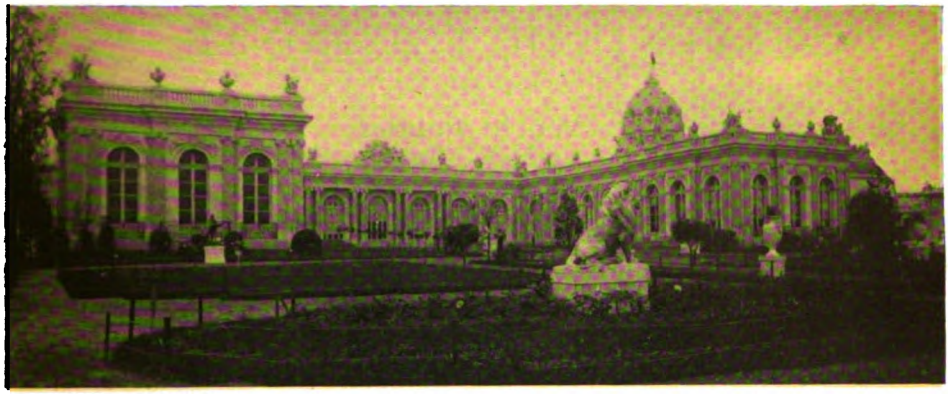
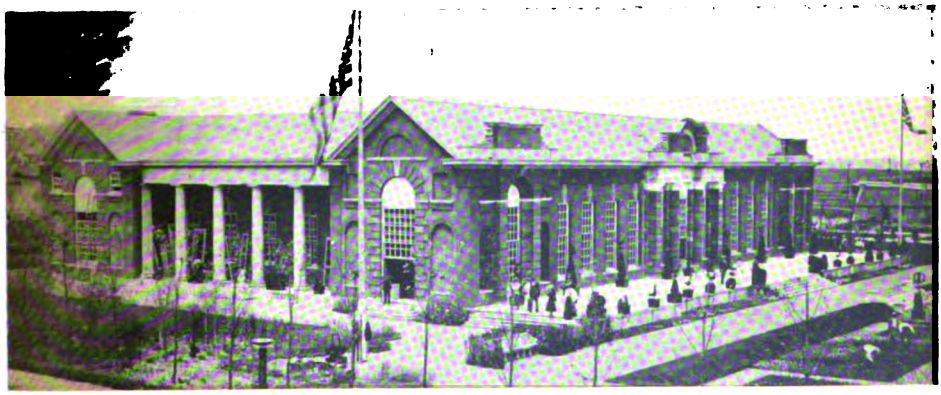


FRENCH BUILDING. LE GRAND TRIANON AT VERSAILLES

GERMAN BUILDING. CHARLOTTENBURG CASTLE



ENGLISH BUILDING. THE ORANGERY AT KENSINGTON

FOREIGN BUILDINGS
In each case these are reproductions of historic buildings

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

World Politics

Is Russia Anxious for a General War?

The high-handed action of the Russian volunteer cruisers, Smolensk and St. Petersburg, in the Red Sea, has nearly made Germany and Great Britain allies of Japan. July 15 these vessels passed the Dardanelles from the Black Sea, disguised as merchant ships. As soon as they were beyond the range of the Turkish forts, both mounted guns and assumed the prerogatives of warships. They seized the British steamers Malacca and Ardova and the German steamers Prinz Heinrich and Scandia, under a pretext of searching them for contraband goods. The Malacca was taken possession of as a prize. The Prinz Heinrich was released after the seizure of its mail-bags. Later all its mail was returned except two bags consigned to Nagasaki, Japan. These seizures stirred the people of Great Britain to a violent rage. The tone of the British press was warlike, demanding that the vessels be released and that no more be seized, because the Russian volunteer vessels had no right to go through the Dardanelles as merchantmen and then play the part of warships. The Russian government averted a crisis by promptly yielding to the vigorous protest presented by Sir Charles Hardinge, the British ambassador, issuing orders for the release of the captured steamers, and directing that no more merchant vessels be stopped by the volunteer fleet. Hardly had this order been published before the news came that the Vladivostok fleet, in a raid off the east coasts of Japan, had sunk the Knight Commander and captured the Cheltenham and Allanton, British merchant vessels, and the German merchant steamer Arabia. All these seizures are intended as blows aimed at the foreign commerce of Japan.

A POPULAR ORATOR IN JAPAN: LATEST WAR NEWS

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THE U. S. SHIP ANNAPOLIS AT YOKOHAMA
American officers welcoming a Japanese Commander

International Questions Involved

The justification for such action on the part of the commander of the Russian squadron opens up a very interesting question. In his reports he states that the vessels were sunk because they were carrying contraband material and had not coal enough to enable them to steam to a prize port. Undoubtedly such facts as these would warrant the sinking of a vessel according to international law. The right of war vessels to search ships belonging to neutral powers is also clearly within the limits of legal procedure. The matter resolves itself, therefore, (1) to a technical question concerning the volunteer fleet: Was it or was it not composed of war vessels? and (2) to a question of fact regarding the report of the Vladivostok squadron. The official action of the Russian government, forbidding further seizures by the volunteer fleet, has doubtless removed the difficulties coming from that quarter, and the loss resulting from the sinking of the steamers in Asiatic waters can doubtless be arranged by diplomatic procedure between Great Britain, Germany and Russia. It is worth noticing, however, that Russia has protested against Great Britain's supplying Japan with articles contraband of war. Here again technical difficulties are likely to arise.

The Russo-Japanese War

So far the Japanese army has not suffered from a division of forces. Kuroki, Oku and Nozu continue a slow but steady movement northward, gradually closing around Kuropatkin a semicircle extending forty or fifty miles. According to Napoleonic theories, Kuropatkin should, some time ago, have crushed these Japanese commanders one by one with his undivided force. Yet, since Stackelberg's ill-fated expedition to relieve Port Arthur, the Muscovite chieftain has only retired toward Mukden, fighting unsuccessful rear-guard actions. A great battle was expected at Kaichou. There was only a series of skirmishes lasting three days. Thence the Russians retired to Tatchekiao. Several times Kuroki's men captured Saimatse after a skirmish and as often abandoned the town. In one of these skirmishes the Cossack commander, General Rennenkampff, was wounded in the leg. A more serious en-

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THE HUMORS, DEVIL TO-SUPPRESS "KWAI-DANZI"

THE NATIONS ENCOURAGING AND ASSISTING JAPAN

This Japanese cartoon represents the attitude of the great powers toward the war. Notice the remarkable English in the upper left corner of the sheet

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gagement took place on July 16-17, when Lieutenant-General Count Keller, with twenty thousand Russians, attacked the Japanese at Motien Pass. Keller was defeated after fifteen hours of fighting, with a loss of at least one thousand men. The Japanese lost 319 men. As the attack began in a fog, the fight became more severe than Kuropatkin intended. The object of Keller's expedition was to test the strength of the Japanese center with a view to cutting off the right wing. Though Keller effected a surprise of the outposts, the accurate artillery fire saved the day, and Kuropatkin learned at fearful cost the location of one of the strongest links in the Japanese chain. There was a running fight as far as Ikhavuan, Keller's original position. Then Kuroki's army, which for several weeks had been quietly holding the mountain passes of Ta, Fenshui and Motien, began a vigorous advance westward toward Liaoyang. Oku and Nozu now became passive after a fast and furious campaign on the south and southeast of the Russians. On July 18-19, Kuroki's army drove Keller's left wing from a powerfully fortified height at Kiaotung on the Chi River, northwest of Motien Pass, and southeast of Liaoyang. The Russians were protected by the river on one side and cliffs on the other. The Japanese flanked the enemy by scaling the cliffs; then followed a Russian rout. Meanwhile, Kuropatkin, believing from the inactivity of Oku and Nozu that they dispatched most of their troops to reinforce Kuroki, sent men northward by forced marches from Tatchekiao and Haicheng to defend Liaoyang against Kuroki's advance. Kuropatkin was completely deceived. Kuroki had indeed been reinforced, but by veterans of the reserves, who had been landed near Yinkow under the protection of Japanese cruisers, July 19. On July 20, Nozu and Oku, also reinforced by reserves, took advantage of Kuropatkin's mistake and again advanced, Nozu against Tatchekiao and Oku against Stackelberg on the coast road leading to Newchwang. Stackelberg was the first to suffer. Oku attacked early July 22, and after resisting Stackelberg two days retreated to his intrenchments before Tatchekiao. Here, on the morning of July 24, Nozu attacked the Russians and drove them forth in rout toward Haicheng. The next day New-

RUSSIAN WOUNDED IN A JAPANESE HOSPITAL

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VIATSHESHAFF CONSTANTINOVITCH VON PLEHVE
Late Minister of the Interior, Russia

chwang and its port Yinkow were occupied by the Japanese, both places having been evacuated by the Russian garrisons after Stackelberg's retreat to Tatchekiao. The capture of Newchwang and Tatchekiao cut off Kuropatkin's right flank from the sea and exposed his rear to attack from the south, along the Liao River, which is navigable for Japanese gunboats for a long distance inland. Kuropatkin's left flank was meanwhile turned near Mukden by Kuroki in a series of victorious skirmishes. Nothing is more striking in this campaign than the excellent coordination with which Oku, Nozu and Kuroki have worked. None of these generals has had a free hand in the field, but all three have been acting under the instructions telegraphed from Tokyo by Marquis Yamagata and his board of strategy. Concerning the siege of Port Arthur, almost all news has been suppressed since about July 10. At that time General Viscount Nogi had advanced the intrenchments of his besieging army to within three miles of the town. In the meantime he has undoubtedly been relieved of the command by the arrival of Field Marshal Marquis Oyama, who was recently appointed commander-in-chief of all the Japanese forces in the field. Oyama, who took Port Arthur in the Chinese War, has the reputation of being a furious fighter, and has probably been pressing the siege with great energy.

Assassination as a Means of Reform

On July 28, Viatsheshaff Constantinovitch von Plehve, minister of the interior, leader of the reactionary party which is responsible for the massacres of Jews, the oppression of Finland and the Russo-Japanese War, in short, the most powerful personage in the Russian Empire, was assassinated in St. Petersburg. The crime was the logical outcome of the policy represented by the minister. The assassinations of Bobrikoff and Plehve, occurring only a short time apart, remove two powerful reactionaries, but their successors are likely to continue the system they represented. The bureaucracy is not likely to restore to power the liberal party headed by Witte, who could be trusted to pursue a conciliatory and progressive policy. On the other hand, a continuation of the conditions that produced this crime can not fail to produce others of the same kind and with increasing frequency. Plehve's predecessor, Minister of the Interior Sipiaguine, was assassinated in the same manner in 1902. The new governor-general of Finland, Prince Ivan Obolenski, was wounded by a would-be assassin in 1902, when the prince was governor of Kharkoff.

Plehve's Career

Plehve, a man of Finnish parentage, won his first important official position by betraying the Polish benefactor of his youth to the butcher Muravieff, who hanged the generous magnate for complicity in the Polish national movement. His success in subordinate positions earned him the attorney-generalship of Warsaw. From Warsaw he was promoted to the post of procureur in the St. Petersburg high court. He was very successful in the investigation of Nihilist conspiracies, and became, in 1881, chief of the department of political police. In 1884, Czar Alexander III. made him assistant minister of the interior. In this office he was the author of measures di-

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rected against the German colonists in Russia, the nobility of the Baltic provinces, the Jews and all other unorthodox elements in the empire. In 1901, as secretary of state for Finland, Plehve specially distinguished himself as the oppressor of the land of his ancestors. On succeeding M. Sipiaguine as minister of the interior, in 1902, one of his first acts was to abolish the local statistical bureaus of the provinces, which were organized for social and scientific purposes. The censors did his bidding without question and he was dreaded as the controller of the secret police. He was believed to be the instigator of the massacres of Jews at Kishineff and other places in April and May, 1903, through his political friend and agent Cruschewah, editor and proprietor of the anti-Semite paper, *Bessarabetz*. Plehve's last important work was the drafting, early this year, of the peasant code, a scheme for peasant reform ordered by Czar Nicholas II. in his recent manifesto. It really deprives the peasants of what few privileges they had, except that the peasants' lands remain inalienable.

Castro's Defiant Attitude

President Castro, of Venezuela, has again taken advantage of his position as dictator, counting on the continued indulgence of the United States to play false with his European creditors and to attempt a policy of extortion with an American asphalt concern. It was agreed in the protocols, signed in February, 1903, by United States Minister Herbert W. Bowen, representing Venezuela, that thirty per cent of the customs receipts at Porto Cabello and La Guayra should be set aside for the payment of the claims of European creditors. Castro has quietly ignored the obligation. Late in July the German government issued an ultimatum threatening a severance of diplomatic relations unless the Venezuelan government paid immediately the $3,000,000 of accumulated interest on the German claims. A few days afterward, Castro sent the Venezuelan gunboat Bolivar, bearing troops and a receiver, who seized the property of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company at Guanaco. The seizure was made not only by armed force,

CIPRIANO DE CASTRO
President of the Republic of Venezuela

but also without any warning to the company. Castro had brought suit against the company in his federal court to secure an indemnity he demanded of the company for alleged aid given to Venezuelan rebels. As the defense was not represented in court the decision was a foregone conclusion. The American protest against the seizure was followed by a protest from the British legation at Caracas in the name of the British bondholders, the British government maintaining that the interests of the British bondholders would be endangered unless the asphalt lakes were restored at once to the company. The Martini Railroad and Coal Company has a suit against Venezuela for $95,000 damages sustained by the closure of the port of Guanta during the "peaceful blockade."

Church and State in France

The struggle between church and state in France has reached an acute stage. The investigation of the charges against Emile Combes and his son of bribing the Chartreuse monks ended as usual in complete exoneration and a vote

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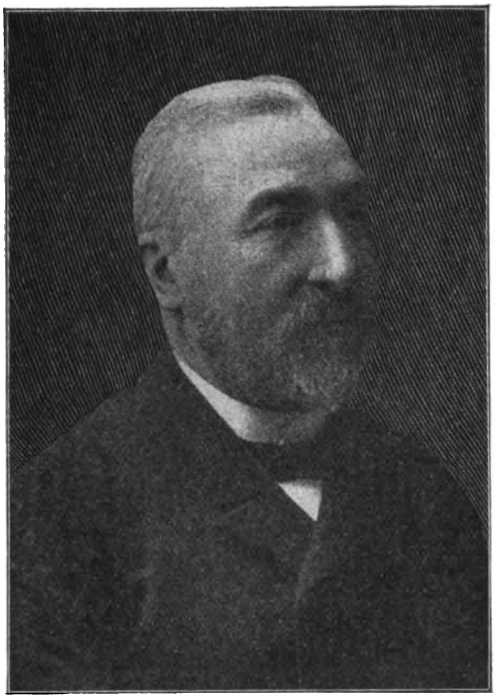

EMILE COMBES
Premier of France

of confidence from the Chamber of Deputies. Still, the ministry is in a trying position, on account of the turn taken by the Vatican affair, the Vatican having instituted a test case to prove the extent of its authority in France. It recently ordered two French bishops to Rome to answer charges against them, under penalty of deprivation of functions and excommunication. This was obviously a breach of the Concordat, which was established over a century ago by Napoleon I. and Pope Pius VII. By its terms Catholic bishops in France are, in a sense, officials of the republic. The state nominates them and pays their salaries after they are appointed by the church. Neither the state nor the church has the authority, without the concurrence of the other, to deprive bishops of their functions. However serious a bishop's offense may be from the viewpoint of the Vatican, the French government must be consulted before his resignation can be demanded. Accordingly, the French government warned the two bishops to disregard the order to appear in Rome and threatened the Vatican with a severance of all relations unless the summons of the two bishops were revoked. The Bishop of Dijon obeyed the Vatican's order and went to Rome, the Vatican paying no heed to the French threat. The French government thereupon discontinued the bishop's salary and recalled its embassy from the Vatican, at the same time informing the papal nuncio in Paris that his usefulness in France as representative of the Holy See was at an end. The Concordat may be abolished; it may be only modified. Premier Combes fears, notwithstanding his resolute action, lest the abolition of the Concordat may deprive the state of the control of the church, whose influence is so strong in France that it is almost impossible for any body who is not a Catholic to secure a political office under the republic. The Pope is said to be unmoved by the recall of the French embassy, and he may prove strong enough to compel France to compromise.

The Nation

President Roosevelt's Address

In his address to the committee that called at Oyster Bay on July 27 to notify him formally of his nomination by the Chicago convention, President Roosevelt dwelt upon the great achievements of the present administration and that which preceded it. The list is imposing. In summing them up, the President felt justified in declaring: "There is no duty, domestic or foreign, which we have shirked, and no necessary task which we have feared to undertake or which we have not performed with reasonable efficiency." On this record he rests his case before the voters. There is no doubt that the public has been deeply impressed with the desirable results brought about by executive action or by national legislation in the last seven years. So long as prosperity remains with the country these notable benefits will be gratefully remembered. Adversity, however, since human nature is what it is, would destroy the potency of past benefits and call for a definite constructive policy. The air of finality which pervades the Republican cause must develop into a weakness

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among the dissatisfied. It is a fair inference, however, that the widespread satisfaction of the public will not wane sufficiently within the next few weeks to make this a determining factor in the result. Rather will the work of the party managers, corporation influences and distributions of campaign funds bring about such changes as are still to come. It is to some extent reassuring that neither of the great parties has pinned its hope of success upon a great and glittering fallacy. Until it shall develop, however, that corruption is to play no conspicuous part in the result one can not say with confidence that the nation has advanced to safe methods in deciding a presidential contest. The desperate fighting which is expected in New York, New Jersey, Connecticut and Indiana, to mention no other states, must be awaited with apprehension by those who deplore the use of vast sums of money in American political campaigns.

American Foreign Trade

In his speech accepting the nomination of the Chicago convention President Roosevelt declared that the Republican party favored trade reciprocity with foreign nations. In proof of this he pointed to the reciprocity treaty existing between the United States and Cuba. The proof is scarcely convincing, in view of all the circumstances attending the ratification of that treaty. One must hope, however, that the President has become interested in the general subject of trade reciprocity as a means of increasing American foreign trade. Certain beneficial treaties, such as that with Newfoundland, which are now before the Senate, with little chance of favorable action, greatly need his ardent friendship. While this country's export trade, as shown by the figures for the fiscal year ended June 30, is gratifyingly large, its manufactures need to be assisted by favorable agreements with such foreign governments as stand ready to make fair bargains. American exports during the past fiscal year amounted in value to $1,460,829,539, an increase of $40,687,860 over the exports of the preceding year. The imports were $990,745,084, a decrease of $34,974,154 as compared with 1903. The increase in the value of exports was in spite of a distinct reduction in the quantity of certain important agricultural products sold abroad. Corn showed a falling off, 55,606,354 bushels being exported in 1904, as compared with 74,360,370 bushels in 1903. The reduction in wheat exports was even more marked, these falling from 113,454,554 bushels in 1903 to 44,158,744 in 1904. A decrease of 927,575 bales of cotton as compared with the preceding year is another striking feature of the figures. The extraordinary high price of cotton did much to offset this decline in quantity when measured in dollars. As the population of the nation increases the exports of agricultural products must decline, at least relatively, while a healthy export trade must show a marked growth year by year in the foreign markets for manufactured goods. If President Roosevelt shall make the opening of foreign markets a part of his future policy, he will find a great and profitable field for his energies. Secretary Hay's work in helping to maintain the territorial integrity of China and the policy of the open door in the Far East should serve as a splendid beginning of a systematic cultivation of foreign opportunities for the American producer.

Mr. Bryan and His Party

In his several formal declarations respecting the Democratic candidate for President and the Democratic national platform Mr. Bryan has not been particularly happy. Republicans have hailed them as effective arguments for the election of Mr. Roosevelt. Democrats have shown resentment rather than gratification because of them. Yet Mr. Bryan promises his support to Judge Parker on the issue of imperialism. This the former candidate of the party holds to be the paramount issue now as it was in 1900. He also asserts that Mr. Roosevelt has attempted to bring the race issue into politics, to the harm of the nation. The election of Judge Parker would "mean little, if any, progress on economic questions," in Mr. Bryan's opinion. Judge Parker, he says, is under the influence of Wall Street, thus nullifying in large measure the anti-trust and tariff reform features of the platform. Still the party's former candidate thinks that

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Democratic success would clear the way for party reform on radical lines. Just how the triumph of the conservatives would lead to the adoption of radical policies is not clear. Mr. Bryan's dislike for Judge Parker has not abated. He accuses the candidate and his managers of employing "crooked and indefensible methods" in securing the nomination. They "adroitly and purposely concealed his position" on the money question until his nomination was assured, says

THOMAS TAGGART
Chairman of the Democratic National Committee

Mr. Bryan. As if all this were not bad enough, Judge Parker's distinguished supporter takes the trouble to disclose new doctrines which he will try to make a part of the Democratic creed in future political campaigns. These include state ownership of railways—a peculiarly puzzling arrangement in view of the nation's control of interstate commerce and the constitutional prohibition of agreements between states—the nationalization of telegraphs and the ownership by cities of public utilities within their borders. He also declares once more for the income tax. Since the managers who now control the party's affairs have sought earnestly to get away from radical issues, Mr. Bryan's persistence in treating the ascendency of their ideas as a mere incident in the life of the organization can not be expected to arouse in them emotions of pleasure.

Chairman Taggart

Thomas Taggart, who succeeded in winning the chairmanship of the national Democratic committee, is a man who has risen from the ranks. He started as an employe of a railroad lunch counter, soon owned a restaurant of his own, then a hotel, and used to the utmost the opportunities for political advancement afforded by his business and his abilities as a "mixer." Political offices in his home county and city, Indianapolis, led him into national politics in 1892, when he became a member of the national committee. After experience in three campaigns he believes himself fully qualified to manage the coming struggle for Parker and Davis. Mr. Taggart supported Bryan in 1896 and 1900, but then dropped him, and last winter joined the Parker forces. His work in Indiana against Hearst's candidacy was of unusual vigor. He did not win the chairmanship without decided opposition from some eastern Democrats, and some of his opponents appear not to be entirely reconciled even yet. The campaign which he will organize is likely to be run on "business principles" of aggressive, steady work and vote-getting rather than overmuch concern with theoretical issues.

Folk and His Anti-Boodle Plank

Joseph W. Folk, circuit attorney of St. Louis, was nominated for governor by the Missouri Democrats July 21. The enthusiasm shown for him by the people of the state had resulted in his control of the nominating convention by a large majority. A so-called anti-boodle plank in the platform pledges the party to unremitting warfare on corruption. This, of course, would matter not at all without Folk as the nominee; for are not

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WILLIAM J. STERLING (Vice-president Packing Trades Council) NICHOLAS GIER, (President Packing Trades Council) MOLLIE DALY (President Women's Union) JAMES WALKER (Steward Packing Trades Council) JOHN FLOERSCH (Secretary Packing Trades Council) MICHAEL DONNELLY (President Amalgamated Meat Cutters) NELLIE BROWN (Treasurer Women's Union)

UNION OFFICIALS WHO ARE DIRECTING THE BIG STOCK YARDS STRIKE
(Courtesy of the Chicago *Daily News*)

all parties the foes of corruption when they come to adopt their platforms? However, the remarkable ability and courage shown by Folk in his prosecutions of dishonest officials of the city and state give significance to the war on corruption under his leadership for which the party has declared. That the old Democratic machine was permitted by his friends to place upon the ticket for secretary of state and auditor two men of its own choice is said by the Republican organization to mark Folk's surrender to the corruptionists. It has nominated Cyrus P. Walbridge, formerly mayor of St. Louis, for governor. However, many members of the Republican party urged that Folk's candidacy be approved. No matter how loud may be the claims of the Walbridge supporters that his election is to be desired, that result would be a grievous injury to the cause of public honesty. Folk has fought boodlers so long and so successfully that his defeat would amount to public approval of official rascality. While powerful interests that Folk has antagonized and exposed may be expected to do all they can to secure his defeat, one may feel reasonably sure that all voters of Missouri who are honest and intelligent, without regard to party, will unite to give the Democratic nominee a large majority. It is difficult to see how the Republicans could have permitted themselves to antagonize this man when the issue which he has brought forward is at least as clear and elemental as any of the other ten commandments.

The Stock Yards Strikes

A great struggle of organized labor against the "beef trust" has affected business in all the large cities during July and August. The trouble began when the Chicago packers attempted to cut the wages of the unskilled laborers from eighteen and one-half to seventeen and one-half cents an hour. After unavailing protests against this step the several unions comprising the various allied trades struck July 12. This strike involved over fifty thousand men and women in Chicago, Omaha, St. Joseph, Kansas City, St. Louis, St. Paul, Sioux City, Fort Worth and New York. For a week the meat industry was nearly paralyzed. Then, under pressure of public sentiment, the packers and the unions reached an agreement to arbitrate the

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question of wages and hours, the strikers to be taken back "without discrimination." On July 20 the men went back to work on this basis. But it was found that the packers were unwilling to discharge all the extra men who had been hired during the previous week to take the place of strikers, and that some of the former employes, when applying for reinstatement, were told they would have to wait. President Donnelly, of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen's Association, claimed that this was discrimination in violation of the agreement to arbitrate, and on July 22 he called all his men out. Practically all of the Chicago employes responded, but only a small number in the other cities where the packing houses are located. The Chicago strike speedily grew to serious proportions. The packers, holding that the unions had broken their agreement, refused to negotiate further. They imported hundreds of butchers and laborers from outside points, and were soon running the plants at about one-third to one-half the usual capacity. The unions prepared for a long struggle. Disorder, such as is inevitable whenever thousands of men are out of work, occurred almost daily, but in proportion to what might have been expected, and what did occur ten years ago, the violence was remarkably small. At the date of going to press the strike was still unsettled.

The Second Strike a Mistake

The second strike was undoubtedly ill-advised. Any statements which the unions have issued have failed to justify it on any specific ground. Cool judgment would have demanded that the discrimination should have been submitted to the arbitration board. As a matter of fact, however, the packers are not without responsibility. The treatment accorded the returning strikers by the foreman was, in the case of two houses at least, wholly unwarranted. A little caution here, with a little more of ordinary courtesy, would have prevented the stampede which carried the union leaders off their feet. Any one acquainted with the history of the stock yards in Chicago knows of the remarkable improvements which have been make in Packing Town during the past few years, and especially since the unions began to be of influence. The decrease in violence which characterized the present strike, as compared with those of earlier years, is due not alone to the presence of the University of Chicago Settlement, whose head, Miss Mary McDowell, has exercised exceptional influence in the interest of law and order, but also to the self-respect derived from the labor organization. It was the danger lest this self-respect should again be sacrificed that really led to the second strike. It may not have been good labor warfare, but it was not without the elements of heroism. The workmen chose starvation rather than to see the cause of union labor suffer.

Peril in the Philippines

If the Philippines shall have become really pacified at some future time it will have been through the schoolhouse, not the rifle. People in the United States do not realize that Americans in Manila live amid a constant series of reports of impending native uprisings. That revolution is still actively agitated, that funds are being subscribed secretly to buy rifles and ammunition and that insurrection only awaits its opportunity is the claim of persons who should be familiar with conditions in the archipelago. Revolts among the native constabulary are occasionally reported. To what extent the native officials are loyal to the American government no one can know with any fair degree of certainty. The present time, when the people of this country do not know or greatly care what is going on in the Philippines, is just the time for dangerous conspiracies to be hatched. Manila newspapers and the private correspondence of army officers indicate that there is a dread of grave disturbances soon. At this distance it is impossible to tell what truth there is in the solemn warnings that are being uttered by those who think the Philippine government is not sufficiently alert to discover all that is going on among the malcontents. Still, what has been accomplished thus far in the way of pacification is extraordinary. If a wise and well-ordered administration at Manila shall be supported with good legislation by Congress, the present stage of unrest should pass away within a few more years. For the

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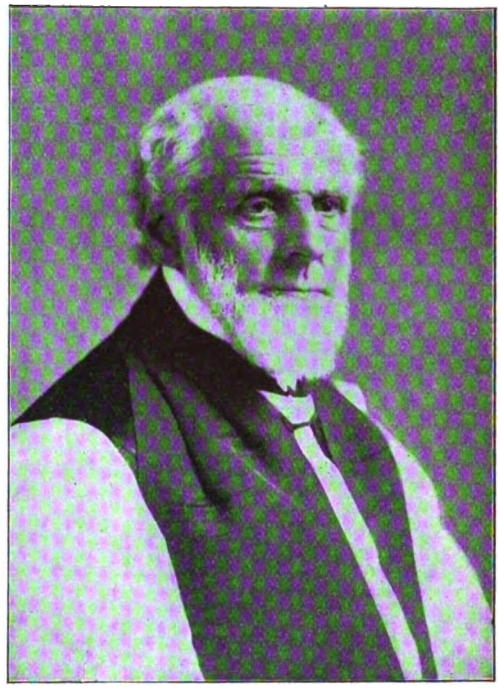
time being, however, there can be no doubt that the agents of sedition are actively at work in many parts of the island of Luzon and in some of the other islands.

Deaths of the Month

An unusual number of prominent men died during July. Mayor Samuel M. Jones, of Toledo, who died July 12, was a man of marked originality and sterling honesty. His sobriquet of "Golden Rule Jones" was earned by his application of profit-sharing and other modern principles in his business. Ex-President Kruger, of the Transvaal republic, died in Switzerland, July 14, at the age of seventy-nine years. He had lived on the continent of Europe since his departure from South Africa during the war. English comment on his death is lacking in bitterness; not a saint or a hero, is the general verdict, but very much of a man of the peasant class, whose sturdy courage was worthy of admiration. Rear-Admiral Taylor, of the United States Navy, who died July 26, commanded the Indiana in the battle of Santiago, while General Toral, who died July 10 in Spain, was the commander who surrendered the Spanish land forces at Santiago. The assassination of Minister von Plehve, of Russia, on July 28, is referred to elsewhere. Frederick Goodall, a well-known English artist, died July 29. Other distinguished men who passed away during the month were Herzl, the Zionist, and Wilson Barrett, the actor. Bishop F. D. Huntington, of New York State, attained a high position first in the Unitarian Church and then in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Ex-governor Robert E. Pattison, of Pennsylvania, who died August 2, was a Democratic leader of national fame.

Running Excursion Trains

An accident to an excursion train which was bearing the members of a Chicago Sunday school home from a picnic occurred near Glenwood, Illinois, a few weeks ago. Many persons were killed or injured, the locomotive hauling the excursionists having run into a coal train. This calamity, though no more



FREDERICK DAN HUNTINGTON
Late Bishop of Central New York

dreadful than others that have startled the country in the past, has attracted an unusual amount of attention because of the appalling lack of care displayed by trainmen and others in guarding the lives of the railway's passengers. It is well known that excursion trains are especially liable to meet with shocking calamities. This is due, in part, to the fact that as they do not run regularly, special arrangements have to be made for them and these sometimes go wrong. It is due in part also to the inferior equipment of the trains. Old and rickety cars that have been withdrawn from the regular service are often employed. These fly into kindling wood when they are subjected to the force of a collision. Their air brakes are likely to be inferior or even wholly useless. The crew in charge of the train may be lacking in ability, or experience, since the task set for them is of an incidental nature. The reason for all this is clear. Cheapness is an important feature of excursions. The railway company makes up a cheap train and runs it in a cheap way for a cheap price. But no railway company has a right to run any train in a dangerous manner. Safety is not a

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HENRY CODMAN POTTER
Episcopal Bishop of New York

matter of dollars and cents, but an indispensable quality of all public service at any price. The flimsy and ill-equipped excursion train should be abolished by law, if not by railway officials. Another revelation following the Glenwood wreck was that the engineer of the coal train which caused the disaster had been on duty continually for fifteen hours. His fireman had been on duty for seventeen hours. It seems not at all improbable that extreme fatigue may have rendered them obtuse and neglectful of orders and signals. When such conditions as these are permitted in railway train service it is no great wonder that ghastly wrecks are frequent.

The Reformation of the Saloon

Two experiments recently made, one in New York, and the other in Raleigh, North Carolina, show how rapidly the sentiment of religious people is becoming divided on the subject of temperance reform among the masses. A few years ago Bishop Fallows, of Chicago, organized a temperance saloon in Chicago, and the "Bishop's Beer," a non-alcoholic drink, was for a time believed to be a good substitute for genuine beer. Bishop Potter, of New York, does not propose such halfway measures. He recently delivered an address at the opening of the Subway Tavern, a saloon established by leaders of reform in New York in which liquor and food are to be sold under the best possible moral conditions. In Raleigh, North Carolina, prominent Baptists have undertaken to manage one of the state's dispensaries for liquor. Unlike New York institutions, theirs offers no inducements for customers to regard it as a social club. Such attempts as these will certainly be approved by those who favor choosing between evils. The ultimate wisdom of such ameliorative experiments will always be questioned, especially by those who believe that the sale of liquor should be treated as immoral and absolutely prohibited by law. Bishop Potter's participation in the dedication of the New York tavern has already given rise to severe criticism, notably on the part of Bishop Nicholson, of Milwaukee.

The American Civic Association

For some years past the American Park and Outdoor Art Association and the American League for Civic Improvement (two organizations "with impossible sesquipedalian names" as one observer put it) have been busily engaged in cultivating the field of civic improvement and outdoor art. There was little radical difference between them except in name, and both appealed to the same classes for support and sympathy. Consequently there was frequent duplication of effort, and always the necessity of maintaining two organizations where only one was needed. The wastefulness of such a course began to dawn upon those who were responsible for the management of the two bodies and steps were taken to bring them into closer affiliation. This was promoted by some of the officers in one accepting office in the other and then came the merger of both into one new body, the American Civic Association, for the "cultivation of higher ideals of civic life and beauty in America, the promotion of city, town and neighborhood improvement, the preservation and development of landscape and the advancement

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of outdoor art." The active workers and officials of the merging bodies have continued their interest in the new association, and a new group of men and women identified with neither of the older bodies, have been interested. J. Horace McFarland, of Harrisburg, author of "Getting Acquainted with the Trees" and of numerous magazine articles, was chosen president, and Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League, first vice-president. Franklin MacVeagh, president of the Municipal Art League of Chicago, and George Foster Peabody, the distinguished philanthropist of New York, are the general vice-presidents. The secretary is Charles Mulford Robinson, author of "Civic Art," and William B. Howland, business Manager of *The Outlook*, was made treasurer. There is also an advisory committee with Robert C. Ogden, of New York, as chairman. The department officials are Mrs. Charles F. Millspaugh, Chicago, Women's Outdoor Art League; George A. Parker, Hartford, Parks and Public Reservations; Joseph Lee, Boston, Public Recreation; Frederick Law Olmsted, Brookline, Public Nuisances; Mrs. M. F. Johnston, Richmond, Indiana, Arts and Crafts; Mrs. A. E. McCrea, Chicago, Railroad Improvement; Frederick S. Lamb, New York, Citymaking; Ossian C. Simonds, Chicago, Rural Improvements; Warren H. Manning, Boston, Outdoor Art; Charles Zueblin, Chicago, School Extension; Edwin L. Shuey, Dayton, Factory Betterment; Dick J. Crosby, Washington, D. C., Children's Gardens; Frank Chapin Bray, Chicago, Social Settlements; Mrs. Conde Hamlin, St. Paul, Press.

The World of Sport

Olympian Games at St. Louis

The Olympian Games to be contested at St. Louis, from August 29 to September 3, promise to surpass anything of the sort ever held. Foreign countries, appreciating the efforts of Americans to promote healthy sport, have promised the United States government every assistance possible. France leads all foreign countries in this endeavor, and the Chamber of Deputies has appropriated the sum of $12,000 to send a team to America. Hungary will send a team of eight athletes, while Germany will have on the field something like thirty young men. England, Scotland, Ireland, Italy, Denmark and Sweden, all will be represented. One event that America will strive to win and one which she has lost at the two previous games, is the Marathon race. In 1896, the only American competitor, Blake, of the Boston Athletic Association, gave out after running eighteen miles, and at Paris, in 1900, the best that Americans could do was to finish fourth. This season, however, the Americans expect to win. The principal record breakers, if any be present, will be competitors in the weight events. Albert Plaw, of San Francisco, who is now the American champion, and John Flanagan, of New York, holder of the world's record, together with Rose, of California, will be the three stars. Rose is but nineteen years of age, but is fast approaching record-breaking form. The three men can do 170 feet, and with the record a little over a foot away, some one should "hang up" new figures. Then, in the shot put, Rose has already created a new world's record, but those who have seen him work state that he can put the shot fifty feet. In that case, America will win this event. The United States has no dangerous opponent in the weight events save in Horgan, of Ireland. This man is liable to turn the tables in the shot put, but otherwise America is safe.

Distances and Sprints

A great band of athletes will appear in the distance runs, and it is here that America will be compelled to yield to the supremacy of England. The English are known the world over for their ability in distance running, and no American boy to-day will expect to lower the colors of Al. Shrubb, of the Manchester Harriers. Shrubb is little short of a wonder. He has run two miles eleven seconds worse than nine minutes and is given a record of fourteen minutes and a fraction for three miles. Alec Grant, of New York; Kellogg, of the University of Michigan; Munson, of New York, and Lightbody, of Chicago University, will

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be the mainstay of the American team. As usual the nervous temperament of the American people will assist materially in bringing to the front an American Olympian champion sprinter. Arthur Duffey, the world's record holder, will probably start, yet, in case he should not appear on the track, his place will be well taken by Shick, of Harvard, the intercollegiate champion; Cartmell, of the University of Pennsylvania; Rice, of the University of Chicago; Snedigar, of California; Hahn, of University of Michigan; Hunter, of Louisville Y. M. C. A., and Robertson, of the Greater New York Irish Athletic Club, the American champion. Nine and three-fifths seconds, the record for the one hundred-yard dash, may not be equaled or beaten, but the record for the furlong is in danger. At the intercollegiate meeting in May, Shick won the furlong in one-fifth of a second slower than the world's record. During the week of sport, the President will occupy a box in the Stadium, and so also will President Francis, Director Frederick J. V. Skiff, of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, and the foreign representatives to the United States at Washington and those at the Exposition. A pretty incident of the Olympian Games is the raising of the flag of the country from which the winning athlete appears. Only first places are counted, and as a representative of a country wins a race, the flag of the country from which the athlete comes is raised and allowed to remain unfurled until an athlete from some other country wins another event. At the closing of the meeting, the country whose representatives score the largest number of firsts is announced to the assembled throng by raising the flag of that country and allowing it to remain unfurled.

American Athletes Victorious

The success of the Yale and Harvard athletes in the international track meet at London is thoroughly creditable. This was the third contest of the sort, and the Americans have won two of the three. In the field and track events held July 23 the visitors captured six of the nine first places; the Englishmen, being always superior in the distances, won the half-mile, mile and two-mile. Most of the events were closely contested, and fast time was made throughout. Shick, of Harvard, though not in good condition, won the hundred yards in 9 4-5, and Dives, of Harvard, the quarter in 49 4-5. There was a large crowd of American residents and English college men present, and the best of feeling prevailed. Yale men carried off the three field events, with good but not remarkable records. Such international contests are an excellent thing when the representatives of both nations are so chosen as to promote genuine rivalry, and to increase intercollegiate fellowship. They are probably more beneficial than international boat races because of the greater variety of skill and strength represented in a track team.

Summer Proselyting in Secondary Schools

The late months of summer are the special time for proselyting among the promising athletes of the secondary schools. There seems to be no means by which this menace to amateur collegiate sport can be removed. Reports come from all sides concerning the activity of the alumni and the representatives of the athletic associations in offering inducements to young men to enter certain institutions of learning. This in itself would not be so serious were it not that all such offers and inducements in themselves are questionable. It is one thing to assist a good athlete to go to college, and another thing to assist him to go to college because he is a good athlete. Any person acquainted with the athletic conditions of our institutions will recognize that the latter is the truer description of the situation. But as such it is not a question of athletics; it concerns public morals. Any reform of college athletics must begin with the conscience of the athletic faculty and the conscience and the pocketbooks of the alumni.

Pre-Season Training

The summer season also discloses how strong is the tendency toward pre-season training on the part of university football teams. For weeks before the opening of the autumn term the candidates for the teams are taken to various summer resorts and there put into serious training. Such a custom raises two ques-

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tions: In the first place, is it safe to let immature young men be kept so long under extreme athletic requirements; and, in the second, who pays the bills for these months of preliminary training at summer resorts?

The Religious World

A Reorganized Young People's Union

There seems to be every reason for believing that the "young people's movements" in the various denominations are about to pass into a new phase. Whether that phase should be one of disappearance is beginning to be seriously discussed, but as yet, without any strong champions. The recent reorganization of the Baptist Young People's Union is significant, however, of the change through which church work is passing. The *Baptist Union,* the organ of the society, is now to become a monthly, *Service.* The local branches of the national organization are to be of two sorts, either, as now, a distinctive religious society within the church, or a union of all the various organizations connected with the church and Sunday school. Special attention is hereafter to be given to religious education. Whether or not such a change is to make the Union more effective than in the past remains to be seen. The one trouble with young people's societies will always be that their members grow old. Such a new situation destroys the peculiar *raison d'être* of any organization for people of a certain age. The problems which confront the church are simply duplicated in the erstwhile young people's organization. At the same time there is much merit in the experiment proposed by the Baptist leaders. But why limit the organization to young people any longer? Probably all its leaders are fifty years old. Why not call it simply the Baptist Union and let it stand for the affiliation of all church organizations not covered by the Missionary and Publication Societies?

The Jubilee of the Salvation Army

At the recent jubilee of the Salvation Army in London forty-nine countries supplied their quota to the six thousand delegates. Many wore their national costume. The meetings were held in the large International Congress Hall in the Strand. The popular impression has been that officialism, militarism, in fact, despotism, prevail in the Army. This is strongly contradicted by many able to judge. There is evidence that officialism has had little or nothing to do with the spread of the Army to other countries.

WILLIAM BOOTH
Founder of the Salvation Army

It was taken to America by a family of Shirleys, who emigrated to Philadelphia and began to preach there. An officer was sent to their help and the genius of the Army converted the small beginning into a great movement. There are now 13,000 officers and employes of the Army in the United States, 7,210 corps and outposts, 644 social agencies. A builder and a milkman emigrated to Australia and started preaching in the streets. From this has sprung the large Australian organization.

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Significance of the Congress

The western hemisphere was well represented at the congress. Four hundred delegates came from the United States alone, 250 from Canada. Mexico and South America were well represented. On the first Sunday of the congress, great meetings were held in fifteen districts of London. In each the largest halls available had been secured, and these were filled to overflowing. The congress afforded a good opportunity of judging of the Salvationists as such, irrespective of nationality. The quality that struck even the casual observer was their happiness. Their faces also bear the impress of restraint and self-denial. Deep lines tell of hard work and sometimes of insufficiency of what are generally considered to be the necessaries of life. But the lines are counterbalanced or quite obliterated from notice by the emotional youth of the faces. The play of feeling to which they habitually yield themselves makes them soft in expression. Such people form a wonderful audience, calculated to intoxicate an orator, and worth seeing under the spell of one. A very striking feature of the congress was the ignoring of color and race on the part of its members. Black, white, yellow, with all the shades between, stood on the same platform.

EAST INDIAN DELEGATION AT THE SALVATION ARMY JUBILEE

Scottish Church Union Overthrown

A decision by the House of Lords, August 1, upheld the protest of twenty-eight ministers of the Free Church of Scotland against the amalgamation of that church with the United Presbyterian Church which was accomplished several years ago. This means that the body formed by the union, the United Free Church, has no legal existence, and that the Free Church still exists, being represented by those ministers and members who refused to ratify the merger. If this remarkable decision proves to be correctly reported the results in Scotland will be far-reaching. The titles to all property, formerly held by the Free Church and now in the possession of the United Free Church, will be invalidated, and the whole ecclesiastical situation will be immensely complicated. The union was brought about after years of negotiation, and as finally accomplished represented the will of a large majority.

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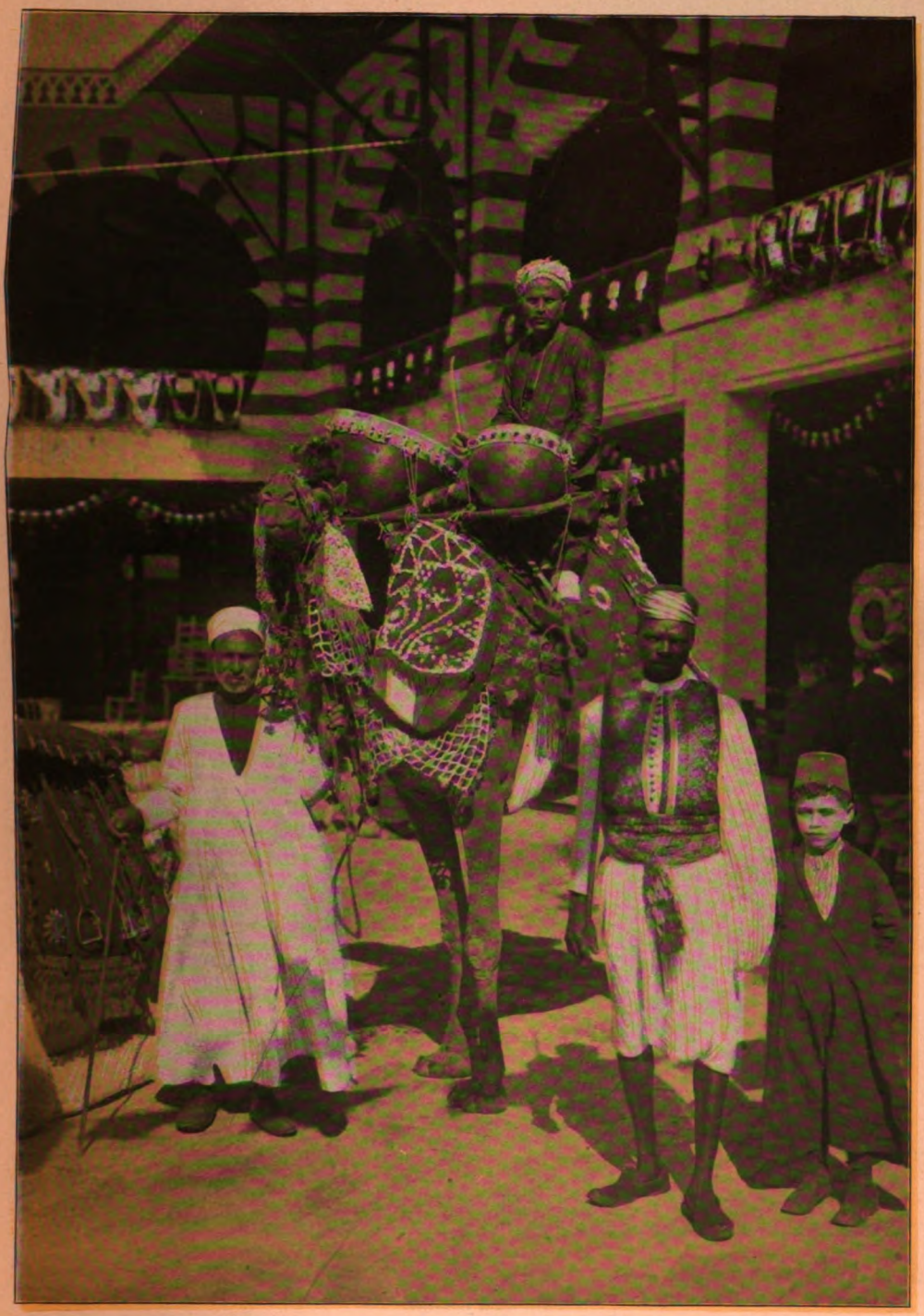

AN EGYPTIAN MUSICIAN

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TURKISH GYPSIES

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THE TYROLEAN ALPS

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THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

"THE glory that was Greece and the grandeur that was Rome" present no record of national achievements so wonderful or so promotive of human welfare and happiness as those achievements of a single century which the United States of America are now commemorating at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Our national and state governments have grandly signalized their appreciation of the occasion and their approval of its commemoration by the greatest of World's Fairs. Never before have they made such interesting exhibits or expended so much money in honor of any national centennial. And never before have the nations of the world united in so generous a tribute of friendship for a sister nation or made such splendid and memorable contributions to the educational worth of a World's Fair as are now to be seen at St. Louis. To bring about such a concert of all nations in celebrating the triumphs of peace and illuminating the paths of progress throughout the world is a feat worthy of the greatest of republics, and nobly illustrates the humane mission of the United States as a world power. In our foreign relations and in our future national life the moral and practical effect of it all will as completely eclipse the money cost as the national value of the Louisiana acquisition does the nominal sum paid for it.

David R. Francis

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GENERAL PLAN OF THE EXPOSITION

BY

WALTER B. STEVENS

SECRETARY, LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

THE greatness of the Universal Exposition of 1904 is not in its acres of length and breadth. That physical bigness is the first impression made upon most visitors. It speedily gives way to more discriminating and more worthy credit. Those who planned occupied more ground; they built larger; but they did not stop with space and palaces. This World's Fair was designed and perfected in three years to a month. It opened within three days of the third anniversary of organization. The first year saw the site secured, the foundations laid and the World's Fair built—on paper.

For two years or more the creation of the Universal Exposition—those vital and essential parts of it which are not comprised in grounds and buildings—progressed through days of unceasing thought and toil. A slip of tongue or pen often makes it "The St. Louis Exposition," or "The St. Louis World's Fair." Nothing could be more a misnomer. The Universal Exposition has local habitation, but even that is due to the combined genius and experience of the whole world in architecture. From the day the commission of architects convened from all parts of the United States, summoned by wire, to view the ground and to outline on paper "the main picture," it has not been "The St. Louis World's Fair." As details of architecture and landscape were added to the original scheme the construction and the embellishment became more and more the work and the glory of cities, states and foreign nations until the Exposition grew into its just title of Universal.

The creative period witnessed the slow and careful assembling of a community of the Exposition talent and Exposition experience from the whole world. The fittest who survived Paris, Chicago and a dozen of sectional or specialized expositions in this and other countries were the men who made the World's Fair at St. Louis in all of its essential features. They profited by their experiences. They did not repeat. They did not compare. Their ambition prompted untiring endeavor to produce an Exposition which should eclipse all predecessors in all of those lines which make an Exposition great. The United States has developed since 1893. The world has advanced since 1900. The Universal Exposition of 1904 should and it does show this development and this advancement in every way. Therein lies the true claim to greatness.

The Universal Exposition of 1904 placed Education first in the order of departments of exhibits, and for the first time gave it a building of its own, locating the Palace of Education in the center of the group. The wisdom of this theory is demonstrated in that the exhibits which tax the capacity of the great structure go to prove that in this latter-day progress the United States shows better as to education than does any other country, and shows better than this country does in any other department of exhibits. The wise men of the Exposition faculty planned well when they advanced Education to first place in the classification. There is a sign of great promise for the national future in this, that Americans outstrip the world in the present intellectual advancement of the young, and that they are making more marked progress in education than in any of the industries.

In the Palace of Art the visitor wanders through labyrinths of sections devoted to the art work of the past ten years. There is enough of the old to judge of modern merit. But the theme in oil and in marble

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ONE OF THE PICTURESQUE VIEWS OF THE EXPOSITION
The Lagoon, with the Electricity Building in the Background

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is the progress of art in this generation. Moreover the utilitarian finds expression here in an enlargement of the classification to couple applied arts with fine arts. This is the "Department of Art" and it comprehends in high degree the application of art to things of use as well as to things of sentiment.

The same intelligence which made the great Department of Transportation at Chicago ten years ago has assembled the more varied exhibits of a greater Department of Transportation at St. Louis. And it is especially notable that the most extensive and elaborate section here was scarcely represented in the Department of ten years ago—that of the horseless vehicles. The proof of the auto is in the riding, for wherever one goes in this network of sixty-seven miles of roadways within the walls is heard the "taut-taut" of the chauffeur's horn. In twos, in fours, in twenties and even in sixties the visitors are carried noiselessly and smoothly through the grounds. A model trolley road, so perfect in its operation that it invites travel as a luxury over the fifteen miles of track, carries each day more than sixty per cent of the attendance. At Chicago only fourteen per cent could be induced to patronize the rather crude intramural means of transportation of that day. Transportation does not stop content with the practicable automobile and the perfected trolley road. It aims higher. An enclosure of many acres, surrounded by a board fence forty feet high, is the aeronautic concourse, with its mighty gasmaking plant to serve a score of balloons at one time, and its immense aerodome to house them.

Enter the immense Hall of Machinery and look down the long aisles between the mighty prime movers, not turning wheels to satisfy idle curiosity, but to generate and to distribute the power for all of the varied uses of the Exposition. The power plant, with four times the production of that at Chicago, is a great collection of moving, working exhibits in steam, air and electricity. It embraces engines in daily utility which were inventions in the experimental stage four years ago at Paris and unknown ten years ago at Chicago. It reveals to every user of power the revolution of the turbine.

In the three Palaces of Varied Industries, of Manufactures and of Liberal Arts, which were one department in one building at Chicago, is being waged the greatest international campaign for industrial supremacy the world has ever known. "Made in Germany!" "Live the Art of France!" "Rule Britannia!" are battle slogans which speak eloquently though voicelessly in hundreds of thousands of objects.

In Electricity there are marvels which were not dreamed in 1893. The Wireless Telegraph Tower sends hour by hour the press reports of occurrences on the World's Fair grounds. The human voice is carried without wire. There is generation of lights in varied forms of remedial effects. The electrician has his laboratory and deals with electricity as does the pharmacist with chemicals.

Peace has its victories within the walls of the Exposition. British and Boers fight over in mimicry the battles of Colenso and Paardeberg. Battalions of Filipinos in martial array march and countermarch in ceremonies of states. Upon the plain of ethnology dwell in terms of amity the representatives of more than sixty uncivilized peoples from Alaska to Patagonia, from Asia and from Africa.

In the Place of Nations are the buildings of most of the powers of the earth, and on the Plateau of States are the World's Fair Capitols of more than forty commonwealths. The life of the Universal Exposition is one of its greatest distinctions. All day and far into the nights the social features of the World's Fair are active and effective. The commingling of humanity from all of the nations and from all parts of this country is significant and of lasting influence.

And so it is possible to go through the entire fifteen great departments and all of the features of the World's Fair, pointing out in detail wherein this Exposition is greater, more impressive, more valuable in its object lessons than its predecessors at Paris and Chicago. But these things must be seen to appreciate fully the general scheme, to realize that those who planned and executed had in mind a scope which was to make this "the timekeeper of progress" not only for 1904 but for the first quarter of the twentieth century.

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A TYPE OF ORNATE ARCHITECTURE—THE LIBERAL ARTS BUILDING

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"A PEARL," BY R. PONTECORVO (ITALY)

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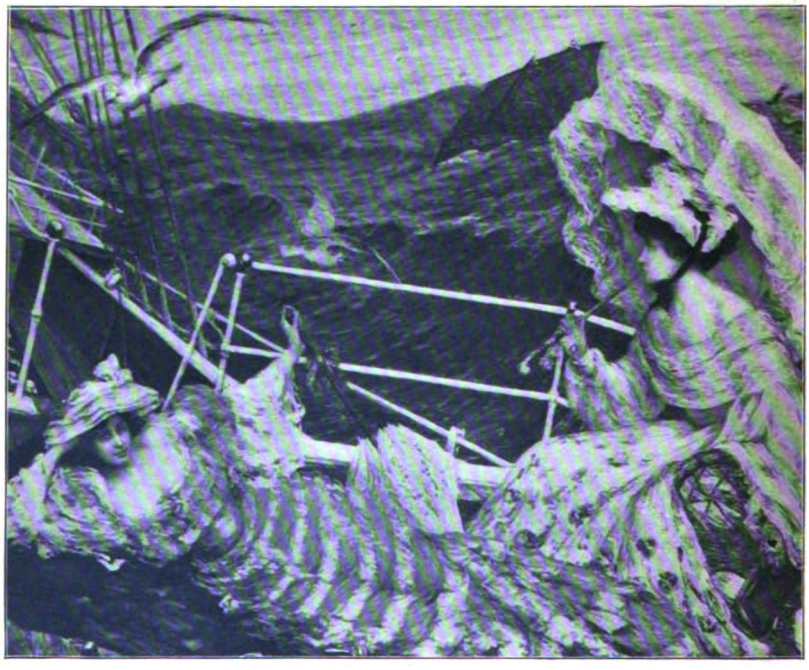
PAINTINGS IN THE PALACE OF FINE ARTS

BY

MAUDE I. G. OLIVER

THE Art Palace of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, situated just back of Festival Hall on the crowning eminence of the grounds, is approached in front from the level crest of "Art Hill." At the rear of the east wing, however, the encircling veranda forms an attractive balcony, which overlooks the suddenly backward slope of the landscape. Great attention has been paid by the architect in command to render the surrounding garden and the structures, themselves, effective in an artistic sense and at the same time cool and commodious.

The Palace of Fine Arts consists of four independent structures, disposed symmetrically, one on either side, and another at the rear, of the central edifice. The two side buildings accommodate the foreign exhibits of paintings, drawings, industrial arts and small statuary. The single edifice, behind the main structure, is utilized for an international display of large sculptures and of architectural models. The main pavilion, devoted exclusively to American works, is one of the few permanent buildings on the grounds, the others being the group constructed by Washington University for its future



"OFFING," BY C. RIEDEL

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"HARVESTING RYE," BY WILLY MARTENS (HOLLAND)
(Page 1139)

home. These four buildings inclose a court, in which decorative shrubbery, statues and flowers contribute to the harmonious effect of an ornamental landscape. Within the buildings, there are contained 134 sky-lighted galleries, besides numerous side-lighted rooms for special exhibition purposes.

Seventeen art-producing countries are installed in the galleries of the World's Fair Art Palace. Without exception, these governments show an unusually high order of merit. Certain it is, that not one of them, at any previous international exposition, has ever presented an exhibit either of so high a standard or of so great an extent. Many are particularly fine and, naturally, among these there are individual exhibits which far outrival their surroundings. France and Germany cover the greatest areas although their works are not of uniform excellence throughout. In the German section, except for the gaudy floor coverings, the displays are "housed" very well, owing to the restful backgrounds afforded and to the ample space allowed for an advantageous arrangement. The French division is not so fortunate, however. Things are rather crowded here, and, cer-

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tainly, the decorations are not as harmonious. It is unfortunate, also, that America has not recognized the value of subdued color effects. The Belgian section, which was installed by M. Emile Vauthier, is very satisfactory as a decorative scheme. Also the Holland showing, arranged by the well-known painter, Willy Martens, leaves nothing to be desired. The Japanese are always expected to present that which is intrinsically fine, so it need hardly be mentioned that their exhibit is altogether delightful. Mr. Shugio, the commissioner in charge, is a man of extensive experience and one who is well qualified to make a success of the enterprise.

The visitor to the German section will be attracted, primarily, by the portraits of the celebrated Lenbach, whose decease occurred a few weeks after the installation of his works at St. Louis. The bargain hunter, who deals in pictures and who appreciates the masterly technic of this great painter, will likewise find the Lenbach portraits an allurement. For, while in Europe the prices of "Lenbachs" have been soaring since the death of their creator, up to the time of this writing no orders to increase original prices had as yet been received by the commission at St. Louis. Notable examples of Deffreger are also presented.

In the French department one is struck with the importance of the younger element among the painters. Simon, for instance, with his posteresque directness, is a never-ending wonder. The "Strolling Circus," in its naïve coloring, its clever dash and balance, is one of his strongest achievements. Then, as a striking contrast to the work just mentioned, is the romantic landscapist, Menard, who receives his inspiration from Grecian ruins. Chabas, that gifted young pupil of Jules Le Fevre, with his breezy, sparkling life, stands for still another class. In the consideration of virile young adepts like these, it is a satisfaction to observe that men of sterling worth may always hold their own, in whatever generation they are placed. The decoration called "Winter," by Puvis de Chavanne, which is a cartoon for the Sorbonne in Paris, is a

"DEATH AND THE WOODCHOPPER," BY L'HERMITTE (FRANCE)

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"BENEATH THE BEECH," BY FRANZ COURTENS (BELGIUM)
(Page 1138)

conclusive argument in line with this statement.

The Belgian artist is a law unto himself. He recognizes a problem and instantly sets about to solve it, according to the most rational methods within his power. It is only during quite recent years that Belgian art has assumed what her advocates are pleased to call her "modern" aspect. But the spirit of the times is witnessed in the fact that artists, young and old alike, are joining the ranks of a secession movement against all that is conventional and uninteresting. Heymans, one of the foremost landscape painters of the country, is an old man and yet he approaches nature with the frank eagerness of youth. "An After-

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"THE SOMNAMBULIST," BY EMILIO ARTIGUE (ARGENTINE)

noon of October" is one of his greatest examples. Franz Courtens, having spent many years in Holland, shows a decidedly Dutch influence. His large canvas, "Beneath the Beech," is typical of his work. A noteworthy allegorical tryptich is presented by Auguste Leveque under the title, "Triumph of Death." "Harvest of the Future," the first of the three divisions in this series, is a charming thing, full of bright, graceful movement. M. Vauthier, the commissioner, shows a versatility of sentiment that is quite refreshing. "The Amber Necklace" is a forceful piece of his work.

If there is one single influence pervading the Dutch School, which predominates above all else, that influence is serenity. Even in the depicting of turbulent affairs, the Hollander's manner is reserved and quiet. He feels the dignity of peaceful nature to be more eloquent than the storm at sea and he invariably makes the one to prevail over the other. Such a conquest is sublime and a people who accomplish it are poet-singers. No greater exponent of this principle lives to-day than the veteran master, Josef Israels, and of his six canvases at the fair, each seems to indicate an inner meaning of the outward dramatic condition, and that meaning is tranquillity. This is the case even in the subject given as "The Skipper," where the tempest rages against a sandy shore. That the general art showing should be recent was one of the leading aims of its projectors. In this connection the commission should certainly be gratified with Mr. Israels' contributions, all of which have been produced within the last three years, and one, "Painful and Joyful," represents his very latest work, having been removed directly from the easel for its voyage to the Exposition. This is a telling example of the fresh vigor of this marvelous man, with a hand as sure and as cunning to-day as at sixty. "Eating," another product of his brush, is a serious, truthful essay, which strikes a chord of human interest. Klinkenberg is always

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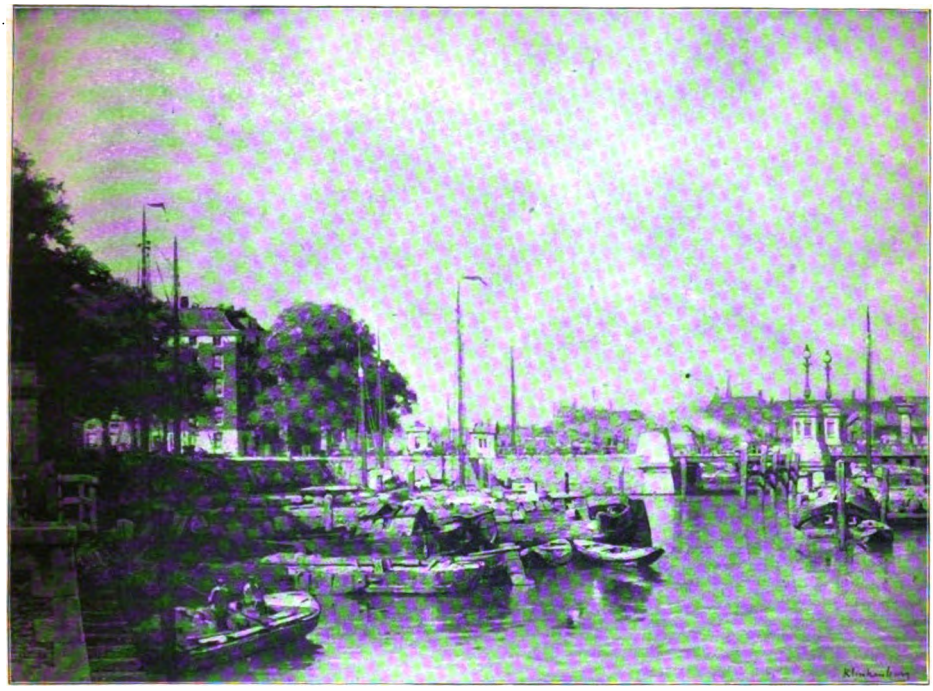

"VIEW ON A BRIDGE" (ROTTERDAM) BY KARL KLINKENBERG (HOLLAND)

happy in his manner. His "View on a Bridge (Rotterdam)" is literally flooded with mellow sunshine, searching out, in turn, building façades, trees and anchored craft again to reflect, from the limpid sky, into a quiet harbor. Louis W. van Soest, one of the younger men of the profession, in his "Winter Sun," presents a superb piece of foreground modeling. Of the three oils by Willy Martens, perhaps the most characteristic is the one entitled "Harvesting Rye." In it the golden grain directs the scheme of color. Contrasting accents in the sky, the trees and the frocks of the women afford the necessary relief from monotony.

It is generally conceded, at the present time, that art in Sweden is more national, more spontaneous, more vigorous, than in any other country. And it has been, practically, only since about the year '88 that her sons have been telling to the world the story of her pines, her snow-capped mountains and her rich, green valleys. But, since they have ceased to look for inspiration abroad, they have discovered a life in her nature that is music itself and this they attune in loving cadence to the joyful melody of their own hearts. Anshelm Schultzberg, the Swedish art commissioner to the fair, and one of the two leading landscapists of the country, has seven of his subjects in the exhibit. The one entitled "Sunny Winter Day" is a remarkable specimen in the handling of snow textures. "Evening in the Wilderness," by Olaf Arborelelius, abounds in intelligent, facile technic, and "Summer Evening," the work of Charlotte Waldstrom, evinces what is being done by one of the several women artists of the land. Osterman's "Portrait of Mr. J." is typical of the artist's most powerful work. It is admirable in composition, in lighting and in general execution. The matchless Zorn exhibits ten of his best creations on one wall that has been reserved for his exclusive showing. Among these are portraits of prominent Americans, the likeness of Mr. James

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"EAGLE AND HARE," BY BRUNO LILJEFORS (SWEDEN)

"WITHOUT HEAD AND WITHOUT WORK," BY ERNESTO DE LA CARCOVA (ARGENTINE)

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Deering, one of the most expressive essays of the painter's brush, being numbered in the series.

Works occupying the American section are divided into three general classes, as follows: Those completed since 1893 and allotted to the "Contemporaneous" division, works executed between the years 1803 and 1893 and classed in the "Retrospective" group and the fine loan collection comprising important examples from the best artists of the world. It is to the regret of England that some of her most distinguished academicians, owing to their American citizenship, do not appear in the English section. Indeed such names as Abbey, Sargent, Shannon and Boughton are potent factors in a catalogue and, adding to them a list like the following: Carroll Beckwith, William M. Chase, Charles Sprague Pearce, Cecelia Beaux, Gari Melchers, Walter McEwen, Horatio Walker, Frederick S. Church, Winslow Homer and John W. Alexander, the character of an exhibit is pretty definitely assured. America feels herself honored in presenting this list, to which is subjoined an exceedingly creditable array of lesser,

PORTRAIT OF JAMES DEERING, BY ANDERS ZORN (SWEDEN)

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"AT THE LOFT DOOR," BY ANDERS ZORN (SWEDEN)

though, often, for the most part, very talented lights.

Unquestionably the central attraction of the American exhibit is Whistler's "Rosa Corder." To be sure, the selection of a great master's masterpiece is no simple task, but it has generally been accepted that the portrait of his mother in the Luxembourg is Whistler's consummate attainment and it is supposed that the "Rosa Corder" stands next in importance. The study of this painting, alone, ought to make the trip to St. Louis well worth the while. In it, the esthetic principle so transforms the canvas that estheticism itself has utterly disappeared and herein, possibly, lies the beauty of the work. Art has been so perfect that it has obliterated itself, leaving nothing but the idea, which, after all, is the only incentive for expression. In viewing this noble work of art, one is uncertain as to whether it is the harmony of line or of color which first appeals to the senses because its simple, easy lines charm by their stately grace and the color plays through a limited range of indescribable grays that are sufficiently "cool" and yet warm enough to satisfy. The subject? Well, Whistler did not paint for the literary aspect of his art. The subject is a lithe woman with a spirituelle face, but, suffice it to say, that the treatment is in harmony with the subject; otherwise the result would not be a "picture." Opposite this great work hangs Sargent's portrait group of the Misses Hunter, reproductions of which have already familiarized the painting to most of us. John W. Alexander's display is also in this room, as well as Mr. Vonnoh's portrait of his wife. Cecelia Beaux is always picturesque. Miss Beaux understands just where to limit her inclosure in forming a clever composition. An example of her ability along this line is in her presentation of a wee mite of humanity, led by its nurse, where only the skirts of the nurse are visible beneath the upper line of the frame.

As hostess of the other nations, America has, naturally, been accorded a very prominent place, and it is a pleasure to note that she has not fallen short of what was expected of her. On the contrary, patriotic pride has stimulated her to lofty aspiration. She has given expression to her truest endeavor. She has striven earnestly to establish characteristics of a national school. She has succeeded in telling the story of her land in an affectionate, sincere and intelligent way. However, whether or not this in itself is sufficient for claiming a permanent success in so radical an achievement, it will be necessary for a retrospective analysis to determine. The progress of American technic since 1893 is abundantly illustrated by the comparison of the St. Louis exhibit with that at the Chicago exposition. There is evidence of growth, too, in the popular apprehension of the principles of art.

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ON THE PIKE

THE SMALL TOWN SEES THE WORLD

BY

ERNEST POOLE

"GOOD gracious, Nathan, what will we see first?"

They had just come in by the main entrance, a whole family from the Sunny South, a tall, brown-faced, gray-bearded colonel, his pretty wife, and four young southerners, the oldest sixteen and the youngest seven.

"Look, Paw, look ovah yondah!" cried Sweet Sixteen, as she started toward a booth near by.

"Marie, come heah," said the stern papa. "Do yew realize, young lady, that this heah faiah is twelve hundred and forty acres? The first thing you know, yew'll get run away with." Marie glanced excitedly at the moving masculine masses. The colonel marshalled his forces around him. "I've been projecting with this heah book"—he opened a guide-book and adjusted his glasses—"we's a-goin' to see forty-four states"—he made a slow impressive pause, looking over the rims of his glasses—"fifty foreign countries, includin' the Philippine Exhibits, costing one million dollahs. Now, wait till I see what we take in first. Hem! We's goin' to heah the largest o'gan on u'th with ten thousand pipes, floral clock, minute hand weighing twenty-five hundred pounds, sugah exhibit from cane to caramel, the ancient Mexican city of Mitla, Olympic Games of ancient Greece, seating capacity twenty-seven thousand, important lectures on radium and wireless telegraphy, reception in the Tennessee State building, five acres solid of paintings, Hale's fire fighters. Ah! theah we are! Theah's the place," and they started off for sight No. 1.

I went to the big free information bureau at the Administration building, and got in line with press people of all kinds and sizes. I was behind a lady correspondent of the *Weekly Star*, Goodnight, Texas. A few minutes later I showed the press agent the list of my southern colonel's sights to be seen. He

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A DEMOCRACY AT LUNCH

laughed. "That list will do for them all," he said. "The exposition is taken in like a big country circus. They come for four days, do all the big buildings, and take in the Pike." Here he was interrupted by the wife of a country editor in Illinois who came with a letter to have "courtesies extended."

"How do you size up the crowd?" I asked him later.

"Storekeepers, bankers, teachers, lawyers and doctors with their families, from the small towns of Texas, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, from Alabama, Tennessee and Kentucky, in short from the lower middle West." He went on to explain how the publicity department sends out tons of pictures and printed matter to thousands of country papers, how state delegations of country editors are brought to the Exposition and entertained royally, and how these delighted editors go back and spread the good news to their people. "A month ago we had the Kansas editors and since then Kansas has been flocking in by thousands."

I went to the Fine Arts building. As I was going in, a short, jerky, little, self-made man came out and sat down hard. I took a seat beside him. His face wore an expression of great disgust. I nodded toward the entrance. "Good show?" I asked. He spat upon the pavement. "It don't take hold at all," he cried. "I know what art the people want; guess I ought to; I'm here for the bill posters' convention, an' you bet I know my business. Half of this stuff don't look real. The people want real pictures, the kind that take hold and make you think." As I rose to go he said: "I advise you to go to the German exhibit and see the nineteen death scenes, they are all real. Just watch how the crowd is eatin' them alive."

I went to Germany. The man was right. Nineteen death scenes of the most real and terrible kind, and the great American people was crowding eagerly around. Just beside one huge death scene I found a well-known modern painting, a drinking scene of the Franco-Prussian War. It is the kind that makes a man thirsty. But I waited in vain for any one to give it attention. The death scene was "real and the kind that takes hold."

I moved on to the French exhibit where death and all other serious subjects are pushed far into the background. Here I found "The Flower of the Harem," which took a first medal at the Paris Exposition. I sat down beside it, and watched the people pass indignantly by. At last an old man sat down, turning his back to the picture. In a moment he caught my eye. "Say, ain't that skin great?" he murmured, pointing to an extremely real portrait of a sallow-faced man. "Ain't that sallow?" he cried delightedly. "Haven't you seen hundreds of men with skin jest like that?" He nudged me triumphantly. "That feller knows his business, that's great!"

I pointed silently to "The Flower of the Harem." He gazed a moment in silence. "Huh! I don't think much o' that, and what's more, young man, the feller that did it wa'n't the kind you'd have your sister know." He dismissed it with a contemptuous wave. "Now, here's something that's bad," he went on, pointing to a scene of wild hogs in the forest. "That hog picture is a fizzle." "Why, what's wrong?" I asked. He drew closer. "I'll tell ye," but just here we were interrupted by a slim, meek-faced girl who walked up gazing at "The Flower of the Harem." "Will you please, sir, to make room for me? I'd like to look at this lovely painting."

"Huh!" grunted my new friend, hitching around, "as I was sayin', them hogs has snouts so narrow they could drink from the bottom of a pint bottle." The meek-faced girl had been joined meanwhile by

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a bosom friend of the same boarding-school. "Aren't those wood nymphs beautiful?" the newcomer whispered. The old man nudged me with a grin. "Beautiful," he whispered. "She's lookin' at them girls in swimmin'. Beautiful? In the first place there is too much skin showing. In the second place the skin is too white. How could a girl live in the woods without any clothes and not get tanned all over?"

I rose and moved on, and as I moved I began to see scores of fathers who wanted "real pictures that take hold," of the death scene variety, but accompanied by well-dressed little daughters who were busily bringing them around to another view. These fathers moved on and on, their faces dazed and weary, but their eyes resting repeatedly on the pretty faces of their daughters. The fathers were pleased and were learning about art. You could see the daughters fast bridging the gap between Paris and the Texas small town.

The country magazine and the small town paper are another force working in this direction. In the French building I was standing one morning in front of a very Parisian statue, when suddenly I heard behind me, "That's what it is, 'The Waking of Love'; come here, Tom, quick." A well-dressed woman was excitedly turning the leaves of her guide-book. "Yes, here it is. I was right. 'The Waking of Love.' I read all about it in the *Arrow Creek Gazette.* They had a full-page print." She gazed delightedly at the French damsel. "It comes to me like a dream" she kept repeating. A group of friends gathered behind her and she told them all about it. One stout, red-faced lady made rapid notes on a big red cardboard lunch-box advertising Ralston's Health Crisps. She wrote "The Waking of Love" just below the Crisps. "It comes to me like a dream," the first lady kept repeating.

A few rooms further on I found a French guard standing in a corner, whence he had been driven by a group of women who were practicing their French upon him. Polite and smiling, he talked steadily faster and gestured more swiftly and smiled more politely, as he saw that they could not keep up the pace. When they were gone I went to him. "The

THE RACE FOR CULTURE

ladies? Ah, they talk all the same, all about the weather; that is all they know to say. 'Do I think they appreciate our exhibit?' Ah, Monsieur, do you think that peasants can understand art?" He shrugged his shoulders.

I glanced at his face, handsome, polite, smiling, and I wondered if he had ever tasted any kind of hard monotonous work, or if he had ever had any family cares and worries. I was thinking of one group of those whom he called peasants. I had seen them in another room. A little pale-faced man carrying a heavy baby two years old. Beside him his wife, still more slight and colorless and tired, holding another baby and watching anxiously a strenuous young six-year-old son named George, who seemed always on the point of smashing some costly vase in his skirmishes. Every now and then the tired little mother spared time for a glance at a painting. This was all the time she could give to art. What other kind of art but "the kind that takes hold" could she stop to appreciate? But had my Frenchman gone that night to the great central court of the fair, where the millions of lights shine out and the bands fill the air with music, then he might have seen long rows of people like this leaning back in speechless enjoyment, unconscious of whether it was art, but knowing that it was all beautiful.

I told what my Frenchman had said the next day to a friend, as we were walking through the Mining building. He smiled. "Some of these people ought to have that Frenchman in this building. They could

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THE SEARCH FOR KNOWLEDGE

open his eyes. Look at that chap over there." A man stood over on one side of the aisle staring at an imitation block of solid gold, representing the bulk of this precious metal mined in America in the past fifty years. The man's eyes showed how far away his mind had flown. We talked with him later.

"Yes, I've been workin' in the mines fer thirty years. It don't seem as if you could get it all in that one block," he said.

In the Machinery, Electricity and Agricultural buildings you can find scores of such men, silent and absorbed, gazing at their specialties, but the great masses of the people you will see straggling slowly up the broad aisles, glancing only casually to right and left, and getting a general idea of what they do not know. The Government building interests them most. The "Clich-ch-ch" of the wireless telegraph instrument quickly draws a serious, attentive crowd. One morning I edged in this crowd beside a girl with sharp eyes and nose and chin who was saying, "Now, another crowd is come. I've waded through three crowds and I can't see it yet. I can't see why something don't get in the way and stop the message." Here a good-natured man remarked, "Say, Miss, let him do the talking. Suppose you don't know it all. We don't want to run the thing ourselves. All we want is what few general ideas can be got without sweatin'." The exhibitor looked gratefully at the speaker, and sharpened his pencil wearily and began, "Now, the waves go this way"—and the lecture was started, while the intermittent clich-ch-ch attracted a still larger crowd.

Out of the tumult rose another voice giving a private lecture. I turned and saw a man of fifty, with white pointed beard, keen gray eyes and sharp chin, who was haranguing his family briskly. "Remember that point? Good. We read it up in the *Scientific American*. Now look up there. That's the top riggin'. See? Good! Now—" he gave a quick, clear explanation while his boy of fourteen and his admiring wife both listened intently, and his two girls giggled to one side. "Got it? Good! Now, come on." I followed. The man eyed his note-book. "Lighthouses," he suddenly exclaimed. "Here's something you've never seen before. Hey, there, girls. That is a lighthouse on the ocean." He turned to the exhibitor. "How far can it throw a light?" "Forty miles!" triumphantly. "He says forty miles. Good! Think of it! Forty miles on a pitch black night!" He was throwing vitality, interest and enthusiasm into the entire group.

Just then a big, heavy-faced man shuffled by wearily with his wife, glanced at the light, and murmured, "Engin' headlight."

"No, sir," indignantly cried the brisk man, "that is a lighthouse."

"Is that so?" said the heavy man with a faint glimmer of interest. "Jane, that's a lighthouse. Now let's get lunch."

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RESTING FOR NEW ENDEAVORS

"Good!" cried the brisk man, "didn't think he knew enough to eat."

The brisk man talked so well that the exhibitor asked him what his business was. "Banker, small town in Oklahoma, but on the move. Sir, I don't believe in keeping small just because your town is." He did not. His range was amazing. But such strenuous enthusiasm is rare. The great masses of visitors move far more slowly.

I walked all around the big Government building. A long line of luncheon groups were taking life easy, and as I walked along scraps of conversation told the story of a people's holiday. They were there for four days, more or less, and they wanted to get a look at a great many new things. From one group I heard an afternoon's program: First a band concert which had already begun beside them, then a reception at their Texas State building, next the Boer War, an exhibition of butter churning, finding the seals in the Fisheries building, a blind and deaf class performance, the model dairy barns, an exhibition of fancy rifle shooting, and, last, the Philippine Village. There was certainly no lack of variety!

I went to the Philippine Exposition. It was thronged with tall, observant, twinkle-eyed Americans, forty thousand a day. I found a crowd of them pressing about a group of six Filipinos who were excitedly smoking big cigars and playing at a mysterious game. A copper plate lay in the center of the group. Each player threw a penny on the plate, and, as the guide explained to the crowd, "Every time a fly flies over a penny the man who owns the penny grabs the pot." As the air all about was alive with flies, it generally happened that the biggest man got the pot. More pennies were then tossed down by the delighted Americans who looked like giants beside their new countrymen.

I moved on to a Philippine hut and found a big Texan on his hands and knees peering into the door. More visitors crouched around another hut where twenty dogs a week are killed to be eaten in the dance feast. The dog-eating, naked Igorots seemed far indeed below the laughing Americans who tossed them pennies. But the Philippine in United States uniform patrolling the grounds felt quite the equal of any one, and in the evening you may see him work sad havoc among the maids of St. Louis.

The state buildings draw great crowds in the heat of the day. One hot noon hour I was advised by a large, solemn-faced acquaintance to see the Missouri building. "I've been through the whole forty-four," he said, "an' Missouri caps them all." I went. In the lofty dome hall hundreds of people were sitting. In the gallery above, a noted church soloist was singing "Annie Laurie." In the hall behind, a popular lecture was soon to begin and people were drifting in to get front seats. Others wandered through the model drawing-rooms, smoking-rooms and libraries. Some were excitedly talking with friends newly met from the town adjoining their

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LESSONS IN ETHNOLOGY

own. And the old song went on, and the crowd leaned back and enjoyed it. After all, it is a vacation they came for. Why make it a strenuous cramming process? A universal education may be there, but the great masses of visitors are picking it up in bits, here and there.

Toward the close of one warm fatiguing day I was sitting on a bench in the shade, when a tall, brown-faced man approached slowly, coat on arm and hat in hand. He sat down with a sigh of relief. Then he took out a list and began checking off the sights to be seen. I glanced down the list. "It looks as if you had done the fair up in good shape," I remarked. "I have," he answered feelingly, "an' I'm about through. Let's see." He ran his finger down the line. "A cheese weighin' two tons an' Queen Victoria's Jubilee presents, that's all's left. My wife at home likes queens," he added.

With so much respectable family amusement, all free, and so much of an education likewise to be obtained without charge, the crowd is slow and cautious about entering the pay shows on the Pike. Stroll up that broad and glittering way on a summer's night and you will find it a moving sea of faces, enjoying each other, enjoying the brilliant lights, enjoying the free sample shows by the entrances. But to pay and go in to one of the exhibitions is something to be shrewdly thought out. One night I stood in a crowd of fifty in front of "Paris." The "barker" was doing his most impassioned work. The crowd seemed profoundly affected. The "barker" concluded with, "Now all in," and marched to the entrance as though leading a procession. I was the procession. I bought a ticket and came back.

"How soon does the show begin," I asked. His face lighted.

"You're just in the nick of time," he cried. "The orchestra is off already."

"Hold on," I said, "I've bought my ticket. What I want to know is, can I take in another show and get back in time for this?"

"How long do you want?"

"Twenty minutes."

"Go ahead," said the barker.

A half hour later when the show, which was truly excellent, was ended, I came out and sat down behind the barker on the platform. A new crowd had gathered. "Now watch the faces while I talk," said the barker. I did. For five hot minutes he pleaded and argued and fired his witticisms. Fifty faces seemed profoundly affected. The speech rose to a grand climax. "Now, all in before it's too late! We're all going in." The barker marched triumphantly away. So did the crowd. He turned and dashed his hat on the boards. "Where is the sporting element in the American people? And why arn't they here?" he cried. The American people had moved on and were looking into the entrance of "The Hereafter." He watched them for a moment.

"They seem to have the money all right," I ventured.

"Sure of it!" he cried. "But here's the trouble, they - don't - know - how - to - spend-it!"

In many ways they do not. In some ways the Exposition is teaching them how. For it brings hundreds of thousands together, and their wives. Their wives watch other wives. The higher standards of living are watched and remembered. The small town is brought for four days face to face with a thousand other towns. Social intercourse is developed. In the Inside Inn about meal time you can see

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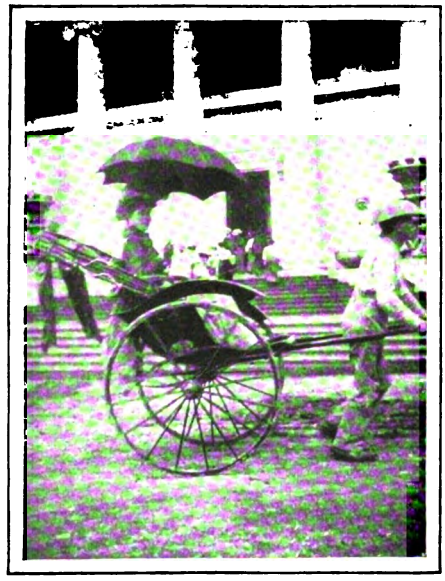
five thousand people watching each other, enjoying each other; twenty-five hundred sit beside each other in the dining-hall. They hear each other through bedroom partitions. They have their children with them, and these children wear clothes which all mothers watch with interest.

Here hundreds of young girls who go to boarding-school meet hundreds who stayed at home. The social side of their universal education appeals to them most strongly. Even the note-book girl stops writing. I watched one vivacious young woman at the Inn one morning just after breakfast. She was dividing ten minutes into three parts, one for watching the people, another for scanning her guide-book, and a third for hastily scribbling notes in her red book. A charming girl friend came up. "Poor child!" she exclaimed, "why didn't you finish them up last night in bed?"

"Silly. I'm not doing yesterday's notes. I'm taking today's notes all ahead. There, I've been deeply struck by everything! Now for the people."



PLAYING AT TRAVEL

Everywhere else you find the same contact. The official free information bureau gives a list of 132 hotels in St. Louis, to hold 150,000 people; 800 boarding-houses to accommodate 16,000; and 1,200 rooming-houses, to lodge 18,000 more. Besides these there are six big camping grounds with tents for several thousand visitors. Some pay twenty-five cents a day, others $5, but all are close together during most of the four days' visit. They meet at the State House, dances and receptions, at lectures and concerts and biograph exhibitions. There are more free auditorium seats where people can sit close together than in any other place in the world. And you find these free seats always taken.

The "sporting" way of spending money is not taught at the Fair. The crowd is eminently respectable. As one reporter told me: "In Texas and the states near by, a man hardly ever drinks even a glass of beer when with a lady friend. They don't do it here." The one great beer garden is the Tyrolean Alps, where a score of big brewers have spent $800,000 in hopes of showing the American people what a gloriously happy place is the beer garden of the Fatherland. But the small towns stay outside. The place is mostly patronized by the St. Louis people and the German-American visitors.

"How to spend money," this is the main lesson of all these buildings. It is taught with greatest effect in the big Transportation building, for here the great American passion for travel is stirred by the most superb and elaborate exhibits. The tempting pictures seen in the railroad office windows are here reproduced on a magnificent scale. The railroads show panoramas of Niagara, the Grand Canyon, the Rockies and all America's great places of beauty and grandeur. They show tempting scenes of the beach at Atlantic City and Coney Island and other centers of fun. They show the most fascinating scenes of life in New York. And the people stand in crowds to see.

The exhibits of the ship companies are even more successful in their purpose. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha Company runs ships from Seattle to Japan, and their exhibit is far the most tempting advertisement I have ever seen. So think the people. In the main rooms here the walls are covered with delicately tinted photographs of "Scenes in Fair Japan," and an endless throng of delighted visitors moves about looking up and wanting to go to Japan.

And thus the larger world grows real.

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THE PHILIPPINE EXPOSITION

BY

FREDERICK STARR

PROFESSOR OF ANTHROPOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE official title of The Philippine Exposition indicates something of its broad scope and is in striking contrast with the popular conception of it as "a Filipino Village." It is a well-planned, well-developed, comprehensive and well-balanced collection, brought together at an expense of more than $1,000,000, to represent the resources, products, manufactures, art, ethnology, education and life of the Philippines. It is, in reality, an exposition. Occupying some forty-seven acres of rolling woodland, it comprises something like one hundred buildings and includes eleven hundred natives, representative of the different peoples, from the aboriginal Aeta or Negrito to the Spanish-Mestizo of education and refinement. All of these buildings, their contents, and the people here gathered are combined into one complete and instructive display.

Dr. William P. Wilson, who is at the head of this exposition, being chairman of the Philippine Exposition Board, has had practical preparation through his long connection with the Commercial Museums of Philadelphia, which have been developed under his direction. This training has specifically fitted him for his present enterprise, which shows, everywhere, the result of long experience in bringing together and displaying material in such a way as to convey instruction.

One striking feature of this exposition is the frequent reproduction in landscape or in construction of things of interest in the islands. Thus, the main road of access to the exposition—that which most visitors must traverse in visiting it—passes over "The Bridge of Spain" to "The Walled City." "The Bridge of Spain" which, in Manila, crosses the Pasig River, is here reproduced, and Laguna de Bay, the headwater of the Pasig, is really miniatured in Arrowhead Lake, which is here spanned. "The Walled City" is intended to reproduce the general impression given by Manila itself. Just beyond "the Walled City" is the Magellan Monument,

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a copy of the shaft which in Manila commemorates the great explorer, the discoverer of the Philippines. Upon the Plaza of Santa Cruz three buildings of interest face: (a) the Educational building, which reproduces the Cathedral of Manila; (b) the Administration building, which reproduces the old governmental building, Ayuntamiento, in Manila, and (c) the Manila building, "La Bella Filipina" (The Beautiful Filipina), which serves partly for display of art and art products, but which is to be used largely for receptions and feminine social functions, and is a copy in detail of a house of the better class. This feature of constructional reproduction is further illustrated by a truly remarkable outdoor, relief map of the Archipelago. It occupies a space measuring 110 by 75 feet and represents a spherical segment, upon which more than three thousand islands are represented in their correct form and in presumably correct proportion. This great map is but part of an extremely interesting meteorologic, seismic, geographic display.

Space does not permit a detailed study of the exhibits in individual departments. We may briefly refer to three of the main buildings. In the Educational buildings the exhibit aims to show the present and past in education, to contrast the Spanish and American methods. While this contrast is not very clearly made, as "it was found almost impossible to obtain exhibits that would illustrate former conditions," the display is instructive. Elementary schools, secondary or high schools, and the Insular Normal School are all represented. Both the usual scholastic work and the work of manual training and hand industries are represented. From the exhibit much is suggested of natural tastes and inclinations and of salient traits of character. The Forestry building and its contents are extremely interesting. The building is one of the largest, and more than one hundred kinds of native woods have been employed in its construction. The contents of the building form the most extensive and best forestry display in the whole Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Of fine woods, with compact texture, rich coloring and fine figuring, there is an extensive series. The enormous size

THE FILIPINO HUTS AT THE WORLD'S FAIR, ST. LOUIS

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A RELIEF MAP OF THE ARCHIPELAGO

of logs and finished boards that can be taken out is demonstrated. Examples of furniture, plain and carved, and of inlaying in different colored woods, by Filipino workmen, are shown. Some curious specimens show the method pursued by the Filipino cabinetmaker in patching, when there are defects or imperfections in the single board from which a tabletop or some other large surface is made. Besides the great collection of woods, important series of tree products are shown: gutta-percha, fibers, gums and resins and medicinal substances.

The Ethnological building contains the best exhibit of articles from the non-Christian tribes that has yet been accessible to American students. All the manufactured articles in the other buildings practically come from the Christian population: Tagal, Visayan, Mestizo, etc., which makes up far the larger part of the eight millions of the Philippines. Here we have represented the life and industries of the Pagans, such as the Negritos and Igorots, and of the Mohammedans—Moros. The display halls of the building surround three sides of a square and are divided fairly equally, or proportionally, between three cultures, Negrito, Igorot, etc., and Moro. Weapons, tools, ornaments, basketry, woven articles, metalwork, all those material objects by means of which a living picture of a people can be presented, are here in specimens, well arranged.

The other departments, agriculture, fisheries, commerce, mining, art, etc., all creditable and suitably housed, deserve notice. So, too, the war collections, housed in "the Walled City," and the soldiery — scouts and constabulary — in the *Cuartel* (barracks), claim attention. But our remaining space must be given to the outdoor ethnologic display, the native villages. This is, to us, the most instructive and striking, as it is to the general public the most attractive feature of the Philippine Exposition. Striking and interesting as it is, however, it would not be just to describe it without at least a reference to the important exhibitions of products, resources and manufactures.

Ethnologists have quite generally recognized four different populations in the Philippines. The Negrito—little negro—was the aboriginal. These were first crowded upon by an immigrant Malay population of well-developed, brown, warlike "head hunters," of whom the modern Igorot is a representative. Later came an

THE CHIEF OF THE BONTOC TRIBE

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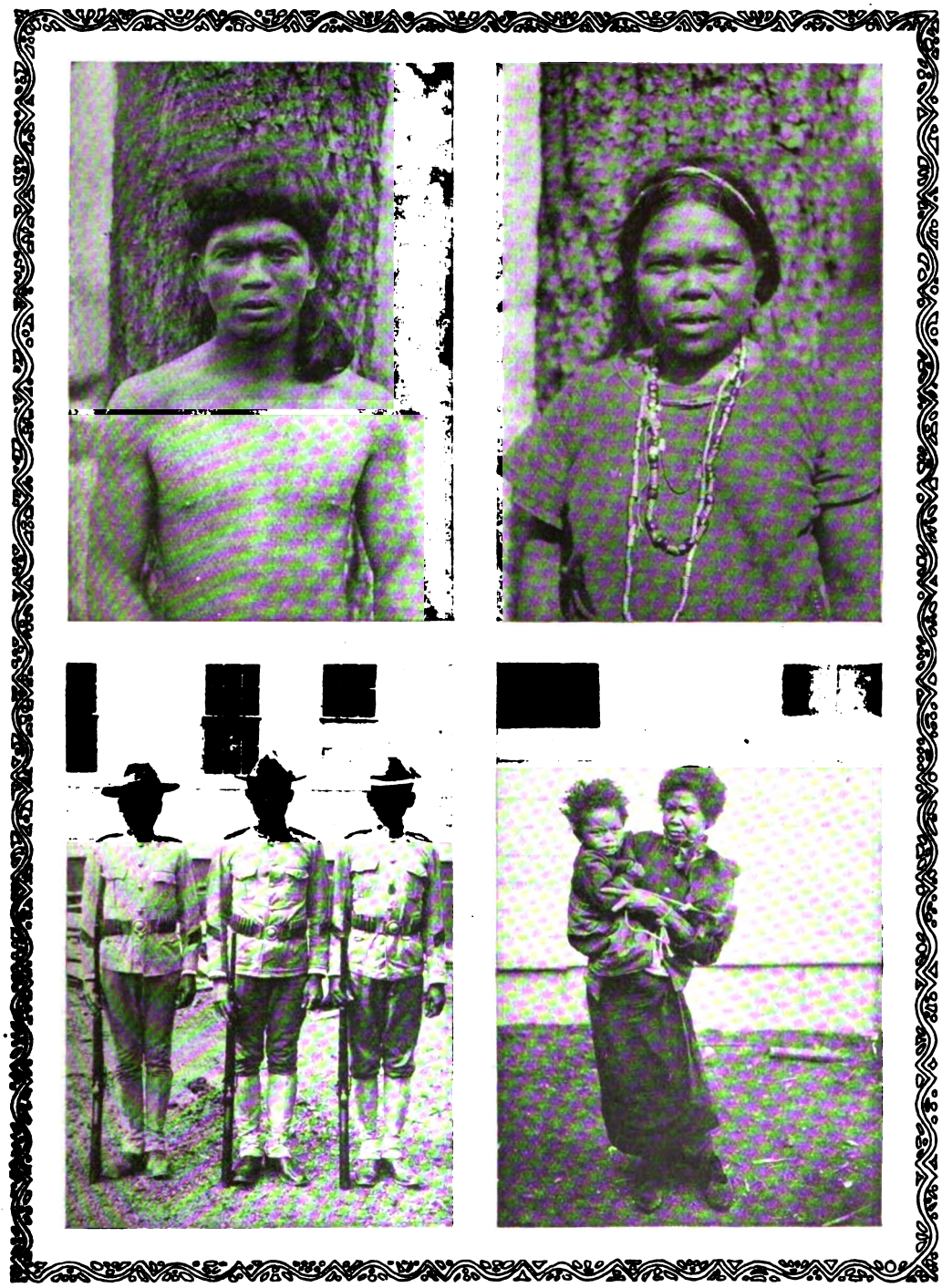

IGOROTS, VISAYANS AND NEGRITOS

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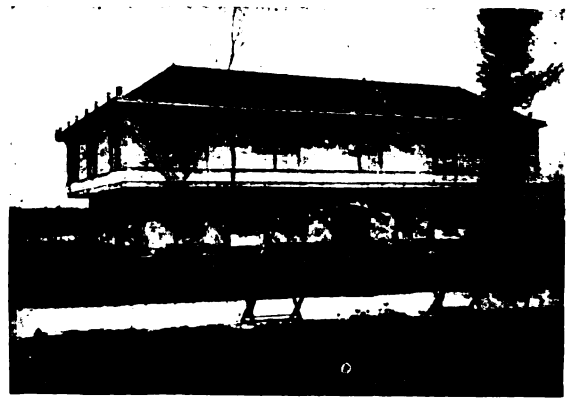
immigration of Malays much further advanced in culture, sedentary village agriculturists, who took up the more desirable lowlands, and of whom the modern Tagals and Visayans are representatives. Lastly, an immigration of active, fierce, but intelligent and, in many ways, advanced Malays, who had but fairly begun their invasion when the arrival of Spaniards on the scene checked their progress; these newcomers were the Moros. In terms of present-day religion the Negritos and early Malays are Pagans, the second flood of Malay immigrants are Christians, the last comers, the Moros, are Mohammedans. At the Exposition four native villages represent the Negritos, Igorots, Visayans and Moros.

As their name indicates, the Negritos are "little negroes," short of stature, with dark brown or blackish skin, kinky or woolly hair, broad and flat noses. When at home they go naked or are scantily clad. Their village consists of a group of little huts, mere shelters of poles and leaves. For the instruction of the visitor, they "tattoo" or gash the back with a sharp bamboo splinter, plait simple basketry, kindle fire by sawing one piece of bamboo across another, dance a queer squat or hopping dance to the beating of a gong carried by the dancer himself, and shoot long arrows with their simple bows. It is particularly interesting to see the children, miniature copies of pygmy parents, shoot these long arrows at coins stuck in the ground.

In the Igorot village are representatives of several villages and even of several tribes. It is the most interesting portion of this



PHILIPPINE DWELLINGS AT ST. LOUIS

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IGOROT HOME-MAKING

whole ethnic display. Igorot is a rather carelessly applied general term. In general the Igorots are mountain agriculturists, living in the interior. Their bodies are finely developed, the skin is a handsome brown, the faces are attractive. While they were occupied in building their houses their activity and industry called out frequent comment from visitors. When at home the men go naked or wear a simple breech-clout; the women are simply, but decently clad, with waist garment and skirt of cloth woven by themselves. Men wear great wooden plugs in holes in their ear lobes and women are fond of necklaces of beads. The men are bold "head hunters," and their tattooed bodies evidence their success in head hunting expeditions. Curious dances, to the accompaniment of the tomtom, are in vogue among them, many of the movements in which are extremely graceful. In the village there are three principal groups: the Bontoc Igorots, the Suyoc Igorots and the Tingianes. The Bontocs are famous "head hunters," the Suyocs are miners and metalworkers, the Tingianes are agriculturists. The Suyocs are outfitted with forges, bellows and the other requisites for demonstrating their craft. The Tingianes have planted some rice in flooded terraces to illustrate their mode of culture. The Igorots have had more free newspaper advertising than any other people on the grounds. Representatives of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals have been disturbed over their eating of dog. Curious that the killing of a few dogs for these poor people should arouse these sensitive souls so much more than the wholesale killing of lambs and pigs for ourselves! As between dogmeat and pig a wise man might hesitate, but eventually decide for Igorot custom. An outcry has also been raised regarding Igorot nakedness. Surely any one who can see aught but beauty in these shapely bodies and fine brown skins, or whose appreciation of that beauty is disturbed by any evil thought, needs an immediate application of *Honi soit qui mal y pense*. As they are, with their dog-eating and their "nakedness," the Igorots are an interesting object lesson in human life and culture; "dressed" they would lose greatly in scientific value, would suffer keenly and might even die. It is to be hoped that no false modesty will be

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allowed to interfere with this interesting display.

In the Visayan village a variety of native arts are in progress. Beautifully dressed and attractive-faced girls and women weave the gauzy fabrics of *jusi* and *piña*, as glossy as silk and of delicate and lovely hues. Industrious, dark-faced men braid hats and plait mats, cut walking sticks and carve wood. The products are all for sale in the village market. There are native houses to show architecture and a theater where plays are given and where the town band gives concerts. It is in this village that one gets the truest picture of the native life of the great mass of the Philippine population. These Visayans, the Tagals and tribes of similar character and culture are the true Filipinos, with which we have to deal hereafter. It is these, too, who have supplied the constabulary and scouts whose bearing and appearance everywhere attract favorable comment.

The Moro village is built along the waterside, the light, thatched huts being set on stakes above the water surface. The different kinds of crafts used by these hardy sea rovers and pirates are all to be seen in use here. The inhabitants of the village are Samals from the Island of Mindanao. They are rather light in color, well formed, active, fond of gay dress. In their theater, to the accompaniment of a veritable orchestra of oriental instruments, they present a series of dances, mimic battles and other lively actions. Among those who are here is the Datto Facundo, who is brother and adviser of the head of the tribe, which is numerous and important. It is expected that the Sultan of Sulu will later be here with a considerable retinue; as our ally, he will attract special attention. In the court of the Ethnological building, there may be seen a house of the tree-dwelling Moros. It is picturesquely located in the finest tree for the purpose in the neighborhood and attracts universal notice. Just at present unoccupied, its owner being in the village down below, it is a true house built for actual use.

A GROUP OF MOROS

The Philippine Exposition thus furnishes an unequaled opportunity for Americans to gain an actual insight into conditions and things in the islands.

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THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

A COMPARISON AND A CRITICISM

BY

ELTWEED POMEROY

IT is a common remark in monarchical countries that the people love a pageant such as a coronation, the visit of one king to another, the opening of parliament with full ceremonial, a great review of a nation's army or navy. Foreigners have been accustomed to look down on us because a democracy wanted republican or democratic simplicity in its rulers. They say our civic and national life lacks the color, vividness, gayety, that these spectacles give to the centers of European national life.

The Philadelphia, the Chicago, the Buffalo and many smaller, and now this St. Louis Fair, give the lie to this criticism. Above everything else, they are pageants, spectacles, shows on a grander scale far excelling in scope, variety, detail, time and size, any European coronation, review, burial or whatnot.

These fairs are spectacles, shows, pageants without a great central figure save as the people themselves are that central point. They are coronations of what? Of the power of the people. They are reviews of what? Of the industries and activities of the nation. They are ceremonies extending over a half year in which the central figure is not some hereditary king occupying his position by so-called divine right, but the great flood of the common people filling their grounds and by far the most interesting and grandest part of the long continued spectacle. They are pomps in which the glittering panoply of war is reduced to the slight but serviceable discipline of the Columbian or Jefferson Guards, a true army not trained to kill but only to aid. The people here occupy not only the center but the whole of the stage with an unconsciousness that their might is the real display which hides the real meaning of that display from the unthinking but makes it doubly impressive to him who sees below the surface. All the rest is but the stage trappings for this people's playground, this democratic pageant, this republican spectacle, this coronation of the common people.

If you go to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, you must either unconsciously accept this point of view—nine-tenths of our people do this—or consciously reason it out and accept it, or you will not really understand it. You may go there for education; you will find it, but it is hasty and faulty. You may seek to get a harmonious and complete review of industry. There is overmuch to see, but the harmonious and complete view is not there. Fault may be found with the St. Louis and every other great fair from every other standpoint, and just fault, but as a tremendous, popular playground, pageant and spectacle, the exposition at St. Louis is a greater success than any of its predecessors.

I thought the Court of Honor at Chicago the most glorious architectural group the world had ever seen, but the central court at St. Louis is bigger—that is a secondary matter—and what is more important, grander and more glorious. Beside its calm and stately beauty, the Trocadero at the Paris Exposition was frippery and gingerbread. It is only to be compared with some great national capital and the center square in that. The Capitol at Washington is one grand building set on a hill. The proposed plans for Washington may in a score of years make a court of glorious architectural beauty, but as yet there is nothing in Washington to compare with the St. Louis Fair. The tremendous power of the great commercial buildings surround-

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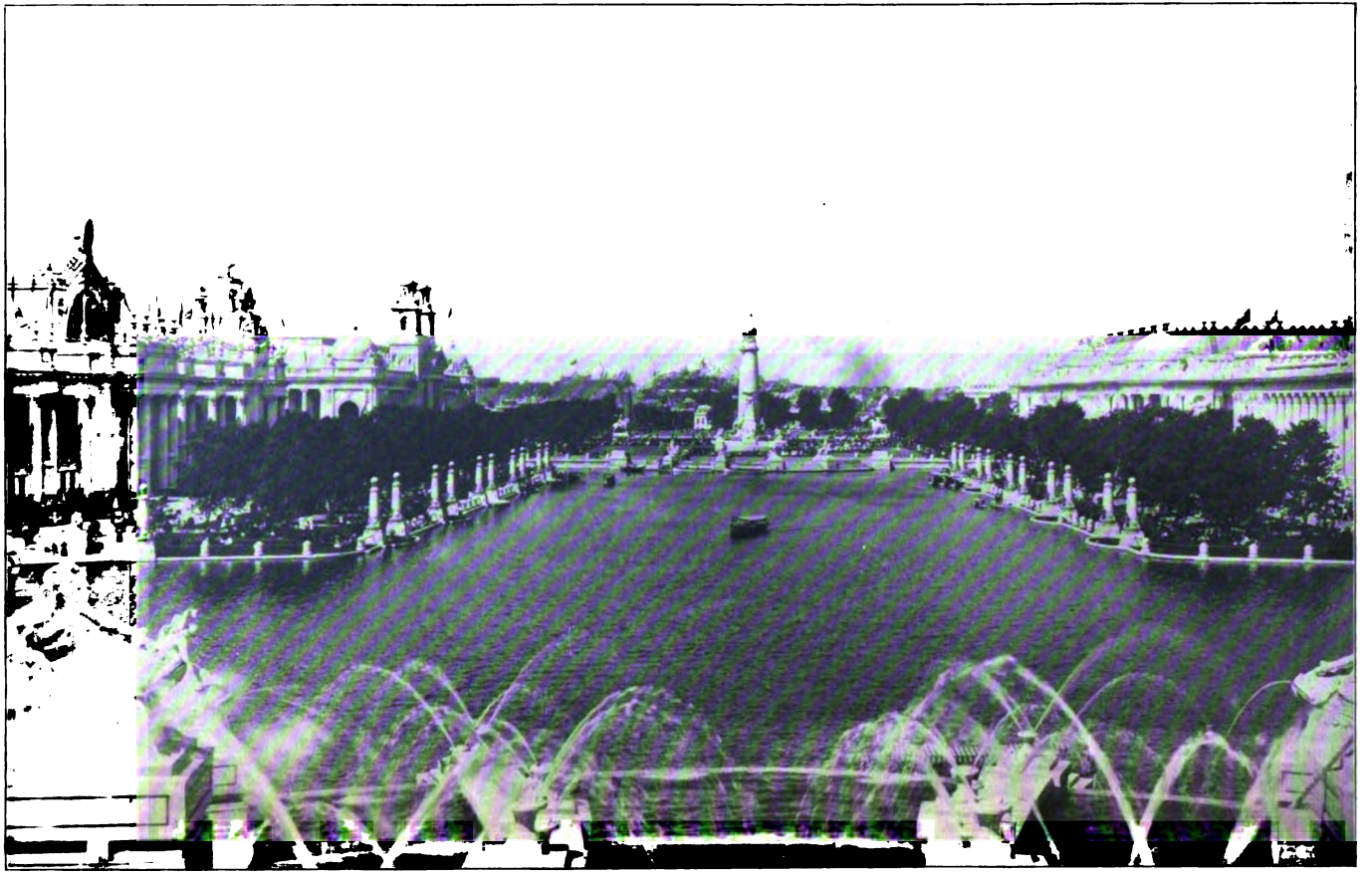

THE GRAND BASIN FROM THE CASCADES, LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION, 1904

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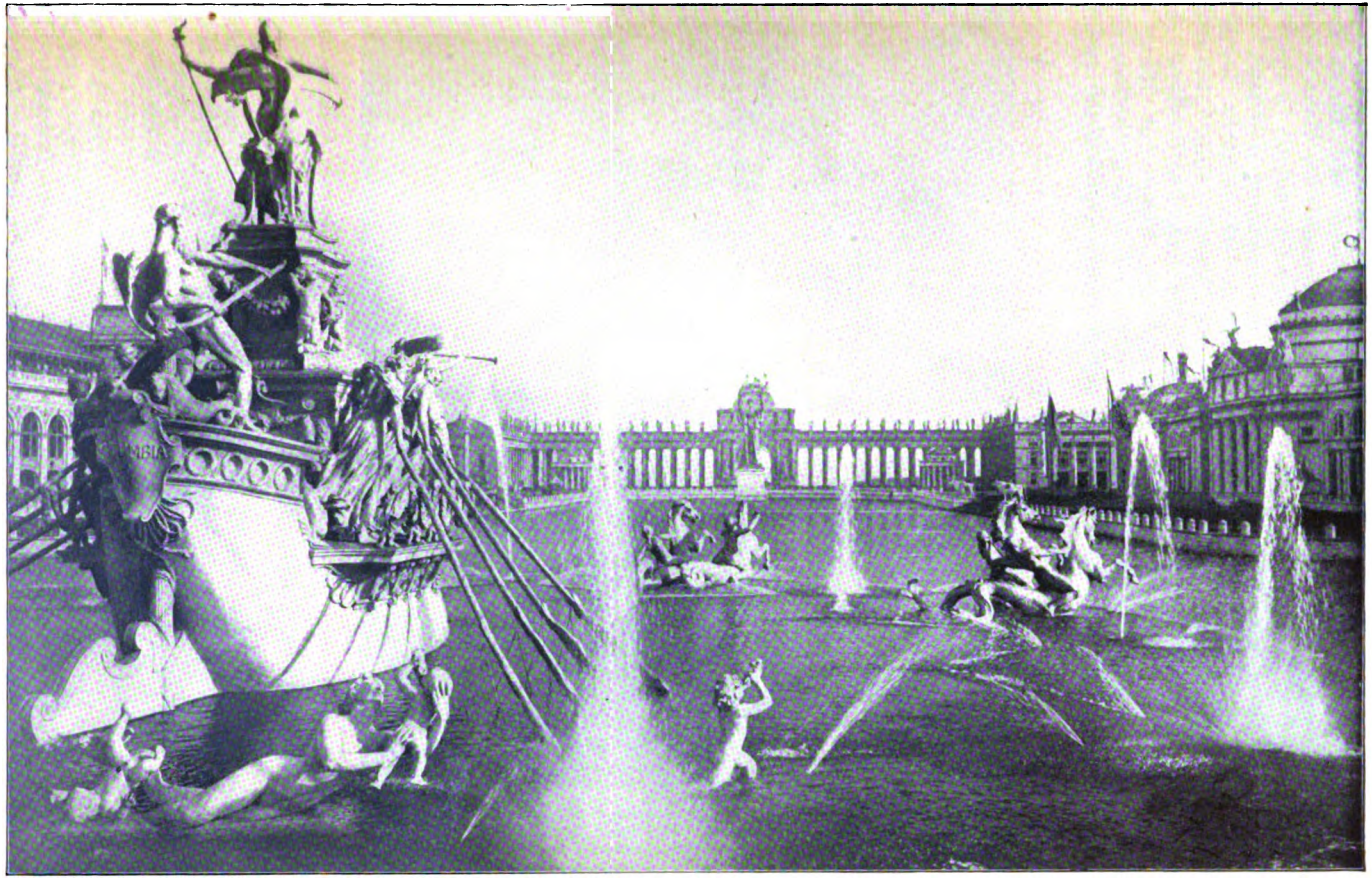

THE COURT OF HONOR, COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION, 1893

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ing Postoffice Square in New York City, and similar groups in our other large cities, are very impressive, but they are too cramped for real grandeur and too dominated by the spirit of greed and too lacking in unity of design for real beauty. None of them compare with the Exposition buildings. Trafalgar Square in London has a grandeur and the Houses of Parliament have a stately beauty, but beside the architectural ensemble at the St. Louis Fair they are dingy and small. The Court before St. Peter's in Rome, the Stadthaus Square in Vienna, the Nevsky Prospect at St. Petersburg, the central squares of Berlin, Buda-Pesth and other capitals are fine, but not comparable to the Louisiana Purchase monument and its surroundings.

The French genius seems better than any other race to unite grandeur with beauty, stateliness with grace, lightness and gayety in a unified architectural combination. The grand effect in Paris of the Place du Carrousel looking toward the Tuileries on one side and on the other up the Champs Elysees to the Arc de la Triomphe, and the garden façade of Versailles with its superb effect of parterre, canals, fountains and forest are more nearly comparable in their combination of beauty and grandeur to the St. Louis Fair than anything I know. In fact, many of the effects at St. Louis have a distinctly French origin. But nothing in France is as large, as lovely or as grand. Possibly the Forum at Rome or the Acropolis at Athens in the height of their glory may have equaled the architectural splendor at St. Louis, but I doubt even that. As a study in architecture for the scenic background of a popular pageant, the St. Louis Fair is an overwhelming success.

THE LAGOON LOOKING NORTH, WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION, CHICAGO

Not only is the general conception grand and grandly carried out, but many of the details are admirable. Thus the introduction of double lines of really large trees on each side of the central square and of lawns with flowers and shrubbery in front of the Terrace of States and around the ornate Festival

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Hall adds that finishing touch of nature lacking in the Court of Honor at Chicago or at Buffalo. It also enhances the fine architecture by contrast. Again the buildings are not rectangular with limited vistas showing all at once, but they are arranged fan shape, like the radii of a huge circle. The side avenues bend and the buildings bend with them. Thus the vistas gradually vanish between the buildings and the imagination, allowed room for play, expands even the grandeur of the scene. And looking down these side avenues you enfilade the façades, getting a far finer effect than if the façade was straight and unbended. The straight avenues at the Pan-American and Columbian Fairs were rather stiff beside this more graceful arrangement. The lagoons at Chicago were just below the level of the grass, at Buffalo they were narrow and sunk two or three feet. At St. Louis, the lagoons are edged with grass which gently curves up to a second level or bank. This is generally the way of nature, as a stream shrinking leaves one or two natural terraces or banks, and it adds greatly to the lovely and natural effect. The color of the buildings is not the glaring white of the Chicago fair nor the kaleidoscope of not always harmonious color at Buffalo, but a delicate cream just a trifle darker or toward the buff in the farther buildings.

Of course, the night illumination shows far more lights and finer effects than at either Chicago or Buffalo, because of the recent rapid progress of electricity. There is one little point of this lighting that shows the forethought of the planners of the fair. Many of the lights are behind columns or projections of the buildings where the light itself can not be seen, but it illuminates the buildings with a soft glow. To my eye, it would be far better if all the lights were thus hid. They glitter and continually attract the eye here, there and everywhere. The Japanese, the most artistic nation in the world, say that glitter is vulgar. By day, the calm, serene beauty of the architecture is restful and uplifting; by night,

LOOKING TOWARD THE PALACE OF MANUFACTURES AT ST. LOUIS

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AN INCOMPARABLE SKY-LINE — THE PALACES OF MACHINERY AND ELECTRICITY

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the surprise and glitter of the electric lights at first startle the mind and then weary it by the continual attraction of small points of light. A half hour of night at the Fair tires the mind more than two hours of day. But a part of the lights are hid and only glow. This is a new effect.

But the effort of the fairmakers has been expended on the buildings and the general effect. They have relied on the advertising impulse of manufacturers to fill the buildings, and the manufacturers of the United States have discovered that an exhibit, as a rule, does not pay. People will look for the exhibit of an article they are specially interested in and after that only at a very novel or artistic effect. Moreover a gaudy booth attracts more attention than a really fine exhibit. The result is that the St. Louis Fair managers have not had a crowd of applications from which to select a harmonious and symmetrical exhibition of industries and then to compress these into compact and reasonable space. If they had waited ten or fifteen years, till a new generation of business managers had grown up and the Chicago experience had become forgotten, they might have had a crowd of applications to pick from. The exhibits are very uneven; some industries are over-represented, and many not at all. There are too frequent spaces filled with booths selling cheap jewelry and meretricious nick-nacks. It even seems to me there was a really more harmonious and better exhibit of our industries at the Centennial, the first great fair in this country, than ever since.

At St. Louis the managers have given larger spaces and insisted more on showy booths and pavilions than upon a fine exhibit of materials. In fact, I do not really see how they could set any standard for the exhibit proper while they could and did ask for drawings and insisted on fine booths and settings for the exhibits. Thus I know of one manufacturer who was so impressed by their reiterated statements of the need for compression that though he had eight by ten feet at Chicago, he applied for two by eight feet at St. Louis and was finally awarded ten by twelve feet, or more than seven times what he asked for. Then, although he had had the finest exhibit of his goods, both at Chicago and at Paris, and was the only applicant in his line at St. Louis, he was so worried and delayed by the management's demands for plans and specifications that he withdrew and made no exhibit. Though he had applied over two years ago and had written twice about space, he did not know till the last of December, 1903, whether he would get any space at all, and it was not till February 20 that he actually knew the exact space and arrangement. Naturally he felt that he could not get any exhibit ready that would be satisfactory to him in the less than three months left. The result of this course is elaborate and theatrical pavilions often nearly empty or filled with inferior exhibits. Thus I recall a large booth in the Liberal Arts Building at least fifteen feet each way. The booth is fitted in the Mission style in dull green and fumed oak, has carpets, chairs and other elegant fittings. The exhibits consist of one or two cases with a few opened books in them and some framed printed matter. The effect as you approach it is strikingly lovely; the real exhibit could be compressed into one-twentieth of the space occupied. The effect was fine; the exhibit not worth looking at. The Germans have understood this better than any other nation, and hanging over their exhibit are painted scene canvasses, grandiose and eye-filling, and at the entrances are plaster statuary. The exhibits may be, as I know some are, cheap and second class, but the effect is fine, and most persons will go away thinking what a fine exhibit Germany had, simply because it is well staged.

Then the classification is different from past fairs, confused and bad. The exhibits which were in one building—the Manufactures, at Chicago—are spread over three at St. Louis: the Manufactures, Liberal Arts and Varied Industries, and lines are broken up, part being put into one building and part into another. Thus typewriters go into the Liberal Arts along with printing-presses, while typewriter desks go with furniture in the Manufactures, and other supplies, such as carbon paper and ribbons, are in the third building of Varied Industries. The idea of the fair as a spectacle has almost submerged the idea of it as an educational exhibit of industry. In fact, any

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THE SUNKEN GARDENS IN FRONT OF THE GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS

large department store in a large city will show a far better arranged, classified, symmetrical, complete and compact exhibition of the products of industry than the St. Louis Fair.

The Agricultural building is frankly an exhibition of taste in arranging cereals, fruits, etc., wearisome to go through. The Social Science building was hailed as a new departure, but its decorative booths seem mainly to contain compositions by children, examination papers, kindergarten products. I suppose they are interesting to some one. I expected a good deal of this building and did get hold of some very interesting tables and charts in the English section, while the French exhibit from the Musee Social of Paris is fine.

The state buildings are a varied and generally melancholy and useless exhibition of taste. One can hardly guess their utility, save as they afford an opportunity for junket to local politicians and an occasion for quarreling as to social precedence among their wives. Occasionally one of these is a reproduction of some historical mansion, dignified and noteworthy, but usually they are built for show and to last six months. Inevitably they are a pretentious conglomerate. The main buildings have a purpose—to house exhibits; no one quite knows what the purpose of the state buildings is, save as they are intended to attract attention to each state. Hence they are usually pomposities or curiosities.

The Pike has not as many or as varied attractions as the Midway had at Chicago, but more than were at Buffalo. Its shows are more frankly entertainments and less a display of races and customs than at Chicago. I regarded the Midway at Chicago as the best part of the exposition. It showed human nature in action while most of the rest showed only dead nature. The same is true of the Pike at St. Louis, save that it was new at Chicago and hence fresher and more genuine. Possibly, also, the fact that it has been and is vigorously censored has cost it some of the glamour which hung over the Midway.

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THE EXHIBITS

BY

FREDERICK J. V. SKIFF

DIRECTOR OF EXHIBITS

IN its exhibit features the Universal Exposition of 1904 is exceptionally interesting. The progress of the world, as evidenced by the extraordinary development in every line of invention and of scientific and industrial achievement and endeavor since the Columbian Exposition, has provided an almost inexhaustible field of marvels for exhibition at St. Louis. This fact has helped to make the Exposition of 1904 the most remarkable and interesting array of social development and achievement so far presented to the world. In addition to this, expert ability and organization have been applied to the selection and collection of the exhibits for this Exposition. The creation of expositions has become a profession. Paris and Chicago have been training-schools, experiment stations, as it

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E. S. HOCH
Assistant to the Director of Exhibits

were, from which have graduated capable specialists in all lines of exposition work; and from these the best have been selected for the duty of assembling the exhibits at St. Louis.

The word "Universal" should be especially emphasized in connection with the St. Louis Exposition, as it is in fact an international, universal exposition of the most complete organization and extensive scope ever attempted. Every important nation of the world is creditably represented by interesting exhibits. Indeed, the collection of displays by foreign nations in the various great exhibit palaces is such as will surprise and delight all who may inspect them.

A dominant note of the Exposition is variety and motion. The demonstration of interesting processes of production and manufacture is shown in connection with all of the Departments of Exhibits. Where feasible, the object exhibited is presented, not alone, but in connection with the illustration of its evolution. Its development from the crude, through the various stages and processes to the finished state, is fully presented, a departure which adds infinitely to the popular interest as well as the educational value of the Exposition. The organization of the Division of Exhibits embraces sixteen leading departments. These are: Education, Art, Liberal Arts, Manufactures, Machinery, Electricity, Transportation, Agriculture, Horticulture, Forestry, Mines and Metallurgy, Fish and Game, Anthropology, Social Economy, Physical Culture and Live Stock. These grand departments are presided over by specialists, designated chiefs, and are subdivided into an extensive series of special groups and classes, under which are offered, in systematic array for inspection and comparison, every feature of the earth's resources and man's activity.

In connection with the exhibits of the Exposition and as their academic accompaniment are to be held a series of international congresses of arts and science. These congresses will review the material evidences of the progress of the world in all lines of social endeavor as manifested by the exhibits of the Exposition, and, from the information gained by such comparison and analysis, point out the way to improvement in the future. In other words, the congresses will provide the experts and the expert study necessary to interpret and preserve permanently the lesson of the Exposition to society.

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In its exhibits sections, therefore, the Exposition will be practically an epitome of the world's progress and promise, as well as of its history, offering the latest discoveries, the newest inventions and triumphs in the arts, science and education, and in the solution of social problems. It will offer for the inspection of the world—of the public and its experts—an assembly of the best which the world has done and has to show in industry, art and science, and it will present these highest achievements of society, these trophies of civilization, in highly selected, accurately classified, effectively illustrative array. It will, in fine, give in revised and complete detail "a living picture of the artistic and industrial development at which mankind has arrived," and will thus provide a new starting point from which society may direct its future exertions.

WHAT THE EXPOSITION CAN TEACH

MANUFACTURERS
ELECTRICIANS
FARMERS
RAILWAY MEN
LUMBERMEN
MINERS

I.—MANUFACTURERS

BY

M. H. HULBERT

CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND VARIED INDUSTRIES

THE Louisiana Purchase Exposition now in full swing at St. Louis is in a state of completeness unequaled by any former exposition two months after its opening, and is so replete with the products of the skill and brain of the most scientific inventors, designers and artisans of the world as to make it the grandest educational center the world has ever known. To the artist, to the educator, to the architect, to the artisan and to the student its marvels open up new lines of thought, new aspirations, that through the coming years will produce more lofty, higher and grander results than have yet been attained, but to no class of the world's best and greatest men does the Exposition appeal as much as to the enterprising and progressive manufacturer.

A trip through the Palaces of Manufactures and Varied Industries reveals a collection of the manufactures of the world that has never been equaled and could not be more complete in any detail. It is in these two buildings that the manufacturer can see and study all the latest and most improved products of the loom, the printing-press, the lathe, the woodworking and leather machinery and gather inspiration to improve and increase the seemingly already attained acme of perfection. It is a difficult matter to discriminate or make comparisons among so much real merit and such a multitude of excellent exhibits, each of which contains some special improvement or device by which their respective products are manufactured with more perfection and speed than has heretofore been achieved. The Manufactures building in particular is filled with working exhibits demonstrating the manufacture of the several articles from the crude material to the finished product. The machines in these exhibits are of the latest and most improved patterns, many of them being shown and used for the first time, and to the manufacturer must be of the greatest importance and deepest interest.

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In the history of the world, improvements in machinery, advancement in manufactures, stimulation in business and the progress of the arts, the sciences and mechanics have developed and improved in just such a ratio as has been produced by expositions, competition and the ambition of man to overreach, excel and exceed his fellow man. It is to the interest of the manufacturer not only as a matter of edification and pleasure, but as a matter of duty that he should visit the exposition now in progress in St. Louis and carefully study the processes of manufacturing the articles specially pertaining to his line of trade under the auspicious surroundings in which they can be found in the Exposition.

Among the many large and interesting exhibits there is none that attracts more attention than that of the United Shoe Machinery Company, of Boston, combined with those of the Brown Shoe Company, Peters Shoe Company and Roberts, Johnson & Rand Shoe Company. In this exhibit the three manufacturers are making shoes in all their detailed process from the skins until ready for the wearer and are using the machines of the United Shoe Machinery Company exclusively. They employ ninety workmen and are turning out three hundred pairs of men's Goodyear welt shoes every day, with machines made specially for this occasion, embodying devices that are new and of the greatest importance in manufacturing a perfect shoe. The old method of "pulling over" by hand has been entirely superseded by their latest improvement, the consolidated hand-method "pulling-over" machine, which automatically drafts the upper over the last with a tension far exceeding the old method without any danger of tearing the stock. The Duplex eyeletting machine is another triumph in inventive skill by which the holes are punched and eyelets inserted on both sides of the shoe at one operation, insuring accuracy and perfection. There are numerous other machines in this really wonderful exhibit that are unique, novel and almost human in their action.

THE PALACE OF VARIED INDUSTRIES

Another interesting and instructive exhibit is that of the Aberfoyle Manufacturing Company, Chester, Pennsylvania, who are manufacturing "Tangle Tissues," "Soile Bouche," "Drop Delaines," "Poplin Glace," brocades and special silk novelties on machines, many important parts of which have never been seen in

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operation before. Their thirty-harness Dobby for making embroideries, with its patent hooks and the spring board for removing the harness, is an entirely new invention and can not fail to be of engrossing interest to manufacturers of embroideries.

The Walden Knife Company, Walden, New York, demonstrates every process through which a bar of steel and piece of horn must go to produce one of the celebrated "keen kutter" pocket knives. The cutting, forging, hardening, tempering, grinding, assembling, testing, packing and wrapping are all done with an accuracy and speed truly marvelous.

Space will not admit of more than a cursory glance at the wonderful display of working exhibits, and we have selected the above as samples of three distinct industries out of the many that are in full operation in this building, making a display worthy of the close inspection of the manufacturers of the country.

II.—ELECTRICIANS

BY

W. E. GOLDSBOROUGH

CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICITY

EACH exposition has two fundamental incentives, one education and the other the promotion of trade. For this reason the state and national governments are willing to provide ample funds to support such great fairs as the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, and it is upon this basis that the manufacturing companies of this and foreign countries can be induced to make fine displays of their products.

The feature which has been made most prominent at St. Louis is that of motion. All the chiefs have endeavored to secure live exhibits showing processes of manufacture and the operation of machinery as well as the finished products. The electrical field is especially fertile in providing apparatus which can be demonstrated in a way that is instructive and pleasing to the public.

Perhaps the most conspicuous display of electricity is in the lighting of the Exposition buildings and grounds. When one considers that the grounds cover two square miles and the buildings some of them as much as twenty acres, an idea can be gained of the magnitude of the undertaking. For the finest illuminating effects it has been found that incandescent lamps alone are best adapted to mark the architectural outlines of the buildings and the decorative figures. The lamps can be placed so close together that they seem like an unbroken line of light. The illuminations about the cascades and the surrounding buildings have never before been equaled and this spectacle will furnish pleasure and instruction to all those who visit the fair after sundown. It will be a repetition of the lesson taught at Buffalo and Chicago, that night can be transformed into day and that architectural buildings can be accentuated by the use of electricity.

The Palace of Electricity is the embodiment of life and motion, as the exhibits almost without exception are in operation. Most of them represent the present state of the art and a few of them give promise of what can be done in the future in lighting, transportation and communication. The retrospective exhibits are confined largely to Edison, the Bell telephone and the development of the independent telephone apparatus.

In the space of the American Telephone & Telegraph Company the various instruments used by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell in experimenting with acoustics and the transmission of sound are skilfully arranged. Two complete central telephone stations have been installed in the Electricity building, the one giving connection to all Bell telephone lines of the World's Fair Grounds, in the city and to

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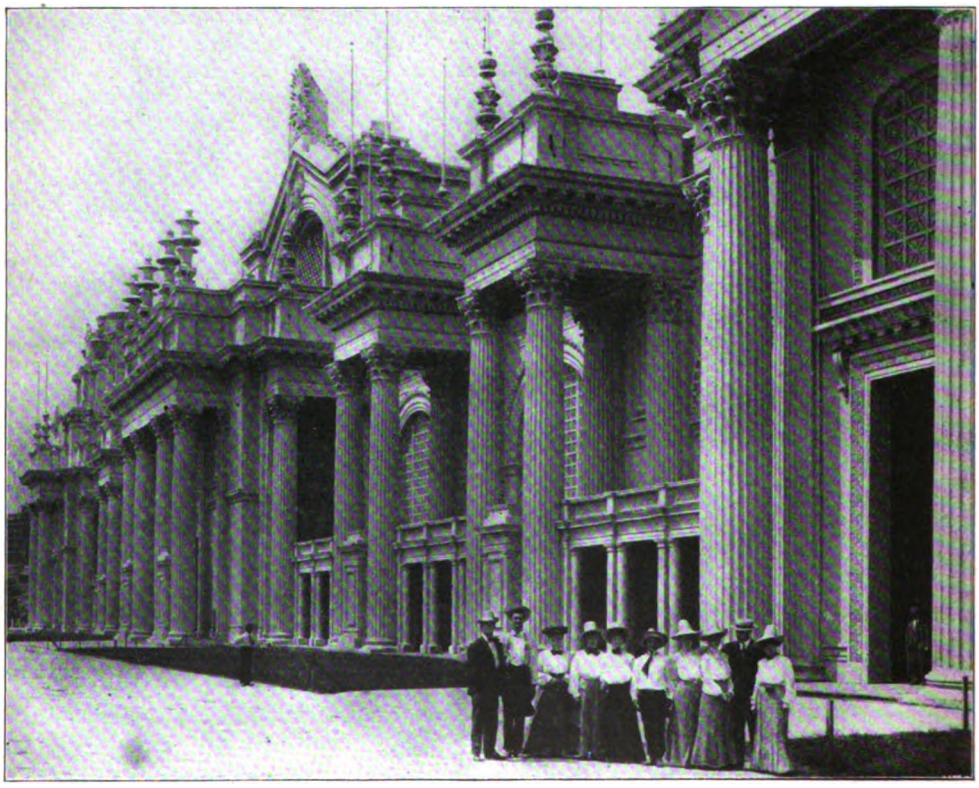
other cities, the other performing the same service for the independent telephone companies. These two stations have been built at great expense and represent the highest development of telephony at the present time. They are shown in full operation and the visitor, who, perhaps, has used the telephone daily without thoroughly understanding the necessary connections, can see and be told just what is done and what happens when he talks over the telephone wires.

In the court of the Electricity building has been installed a wireless telephone by means of which no wire connections are necessary for the person with the receiver to understand what is being said at the transmitter. In a booth in the building is a water-cooled transmitter into which the sounds of a phonograph enter and its pulsations are carried upon the circuit. Any one within the sphere of influence, in this case covering about two acres, who has a telephone receiver with small induction coil can hear the sounds perfectly upon holding the transmitter to his ear.

Telephony is shown in one other phase which is perhaps the most remarkable of all, as the sound can be transmitted over a beam of light. At the opposite ends of the western side of the Electricity building there are search-lights about five hundred feet apart. By means of these search-lights, transmitting and receiving apparatus and a selenium cell the sounds from one search-light can be heard perfectly in the telephone booth adjoining the other one.

A number of telegraph instruments are shown in operation. The central stations of the Western Union and of the Postal companies on the Exposition grounds are installed in the Electricity building. Two instruments of rapid telegraphy are also shown in operation near by. By means of these a thousand words a minute can be transmitted. Wireless telegraphy has been exploited to a greater extent at St. Louis than has ever been known elsewhere.

The science of electro-therapeutics has made wonderful development in the last few years and electricity is now used for



EAST FRONT OF THE PALACE OF ELECTRICITY

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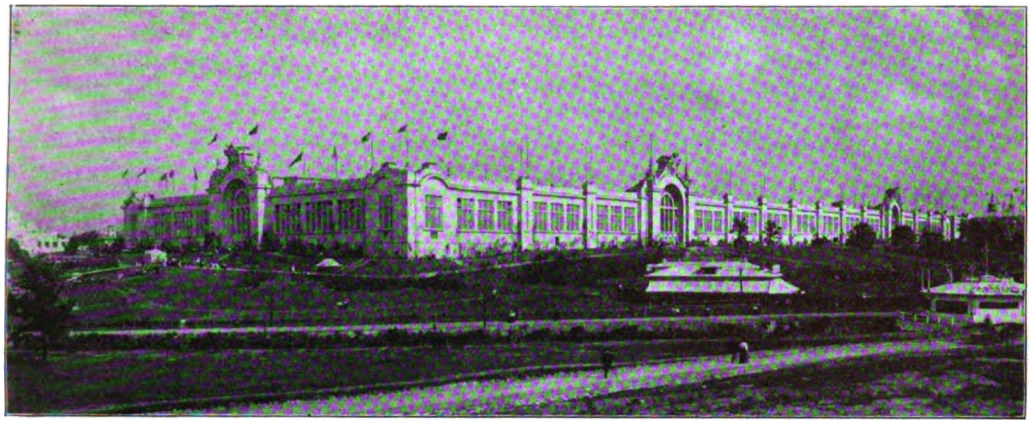

THE AGRICULTURAL BUILDING

the alleviation of disease in some of its worst forms. By means of the X-Ray and other apparatus scientific diagnosis can now be made in many cases of chronic trouble which heretofore has been beyond the skill of the best physicians. The high potential and high frequency apparatus is of very great interest to both the public and physicians.

Electricity as applied to street railways, electric lighting and power development is shown by a great number of interesting exhibits. These are purely commercial, and the finest and latest types of apparatus which are now being furnished to the trade are shown in operation in the various exhibits of the building. The foreign exhibits in the electricity building are of great merit, and in some special fields show a remarkable advance. However, the domestic exhibits indicate that in the field of electrical engineering the Americans are well to the front, especially in commercial applications.

III.—FARMERS

BY

F. D. COBURN

CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LIVE STOCK

THE farmer is specially cared for in the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, as to his interest more space has been allotted than to any two or three other branches of industry. A little more than seventy acres are devoted to agriculture, horticulture, floriculture and kindred subjects. The Palaces of Agriculture and Horticulture have under roof more than twenty-six acres. These facts are only significant as one element in the great position which the Exposition management has given to agriculture, the foundation and strength, financially and morally, of our union. In the Palace of Agriculture it has been the endeavor to show not only everything which pertains in these modern days to agriculture, but in relation thereto a series of exhibits which show what we might call the evolution or progress which this science has made during the last four hundred years of occupancy by the Anglo-Saxon race.

Agricultural products, of course, are shown in a greater profusion and variety than ever seen at an exposition, and these products are presented in the most pleasing way, both as regards their relation to one another and their relation to the other industries of the states. Nor are their most picturesque forms neglected. A head of wheat, an ear of corn, a boll of

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cotton, a leaf of tobacco, a potato, a sugar beet, a stalk of sugar cane, each of these is in itself insignificant and unimportant to the casual observer, yet the visitor in the Palace of Agriculture will see each of these insignificant commodities wrought into artistic forms and converted from the raw state into every marketable form. The processes used in their production on the farm, harvesting machinery, the methods of transportation and the conversion of the raw product into merchantable forms are all shown in the most graphic and entertaining way. Twenty thousand feet are devoted to tobacco alone, fifteen thousand feet to corn and to cotton. Not only are these products in their crude form and their by-products in commercial form exhibited, but in addition five thousand feet of space are devoted to the laboratory processes by which are shown the impurities, the adulterations, the misbranding and artificial coloring of food products after they leave the honest hand of the son of toil. It is important that the farmer should study this phase of the question. By so doing he will see that honesty in the processes of the farm, and the maintenance of an absolute standard in the purity of meats, preserves, pickles and other agricultural products will result in a regular demand for such products at prices far in excess of those demanded by the purveyor of the adulterated, misbranded and colored articles of food. The farmer may also attend a dairy school in the Palace of Agriculture. There he may study the latest and most approved methods for the manufacture of cheese and butter and for the handling and marketing of milk. All the time-saving appliances which pertain to agriculture in any of its forms are there for inspection. Every tool and implement devised to lighten his burden are there also. More than three acres of these implements are on view and no man who is interested even remotely in agriculture can fail to be entertained by an inspection of its marvels of modern invention.

In Horticulture Hall is a scene to delight the eye; more than four acres of fruits and nuts grown in every region of the United States are shown. Besides these, the flowers, the grasses, the legumes and the aquatic plants are all on view.

The farmer can spend a week in Agricultural Hall. At the barns he will find the herds of Jerseys where the tests of milk and butter are being made. He can see the silos, the fences, the gates, the windmills, the pumps, and everything which is accessory to the farm. There should be a farmers' week wherein the farmers all over the country could come to St. Louis, meet each other and study this vast aggregation which has been compiled to illustrate the progress of husbandry in the United States.

IV.—RAILWAY MEN

BY

WILLARD A. SMITH

CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

RAILROAD men are generally well posted on what is going on in the world at large and especially in their own field of industry. Their business keeps them in touch with the lines of progress. Any improvement in methods or appliances means a great deal from an economical standpoint. They have a technical, periodical literature which is unsurpassed. They get together in national and local associations and clubs for discussion and investigation. As a rule any advancement in any form of practice by one company is made known to the others. There is a freedom of interchange of experience and views, which is hardly equaled in the case of men engaged in any other occupation.

At first glance, therefore, it might seem that railway men have little to learn from any showing which might be made in any exposition. It is a fact, however, that the

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great expositions have marked epochs in railway progress. Exhibitions of this kind have a decided effect in fostering the pride of railway officials and employes in their life business, and do much in increasing an *esprit de corps* which is as valuable in the railway army as in any military organization. To the railway man the transportation building at St. Louis is the *clou* to the Exposition; and there are many others who agree with him. If the most important part of education is in stimulating the enthusiasm of the student, the realization of the greatness of the forces of progress with which he is allied which comes to a railway employe as he stands among the mighty engines gathered in the center of the Transportation building, must have a decided influence on his future.

To the untechnical observer there appears to have been little change in railway machinery and appliances since the Columbian Exposition of 1893. There has been no startling innovation like the air brake. It is true, however, that the change, due jointly to the inventor and the designer, has been as great at least as during any former period of equal length. The economy of bigness (sometimes overestimated) has been the keynote of the closing years of the old century and the opening years of the new. Increased tractive power of engines and capacity of cars have wrought a revolution in railway practice. The cost of transporting freight in the United States has, as a consequence, been reduced to an extent which hardly receives credence in other countries.

How has this been done? Not everywhere and at once; but at most favoring locations and gradually. The exhibit at St. Louis naturally includes the highest development. All of the most recent types have been brought together. Here the trend of development is clearly and unmistakably indicated. There are some forty modern locomotives, including four types of balanced compounds, one from France, one from Germany, and two from the United States. This is a type of locomotive from which the world is, with reason, looking for great results. It is distinctly new and its appearance is one of the most distinguishing features of the exhibition. The most striking change in

THE TRANSPORTATION BUILDING

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the exhibit as a whole is seen in the enormous size of the locomotives. There are those who believe that the limit of size and weight has been reached, and that at any subsequent exposition the average weight of locomotives shown will be much less. It seems to be the prevailing opinion, however, among technical men, that the "big locomotive" (perhaps not the biggest) has come to stay.

Leaving out narrow gauge, switching and other light engines, there were twenty-nine American locomotives at Chicago in 1893, having an average weight of 128,558 pounds. At the St. Louis Exposition there are twenty-nine American locomotives having an average weight of 195,239 pounds. At Chicago the total weight of the heaviest locomotive was 195,000 pounds. This was criticized for excessive weight and the general opinion was that it was the limit. At St. Louis the average is greater than the heaviest at Chicago, the heaviest being 393,012 pounds (lightweight engine and tender). This is a mountain climber which is yet an experiment. The next heaviest weighs 287,580 pounds, and there are six others weighing over 200,000 pounds each. The total weight of the twenty-nine largest locomotives shown at St. Louis is 5,603,425 pounds. The heaviest engine at Chicago was exceptional, weighing 26,000 pounds more than the next heaviest, which in turn weighed 13,000 pounds more than the next. Perhaps it would be fairer to omit the heaviest at St. Louis as being entirely exceptional, a sporadic case. We would then have the average weight at St. Louis of 188,176 pounds, as against an average of 128,558 in Chicago, an increase of about forty-six and one-half per cent. If the Malet compound is included in the comparison the increase has been over fifty per cent

So much for actual locomotive development to date. It has remained for the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, while affording this backward glimpse, to point out the way to future advancement. Locomotive improvement has come in the past through individual invention, design and experiment. It has been rather synthetic than analytic. The fittest have survived, but the way to intelligent advancement has not hitherto been scientifically investigated. A design of locomotive which has proven successful on one road under certain conditions has utterly failed on another.

The conditions of service are so varying, so irregular and so hard to estimate and compute, that advancement has been greatly impeded. It has been recognized for some years that locomotive investigation should be conducted in laboratories where, the conditions being controlled, the results will be positive. Attempts made on a small scale had established the possibilities and pointed out the way. The opportunity afforded at a great exposition to start such a work of investigation is a rare one. The gathering together of the most recent types of locomotives from the world, the presence of the best engineers and the focusing of interest for many months on a work which is for the general good, makes it possible to accomplish in months what might otherwise require as many years. To start a new century of locomotive advancement in this scientific way, was the desire of the Exposition. It was fortunate in finding a railway system, the Pennsylvania, which was in sympathy with this idea and willing to devote a necessarily large amount of money, as well as the best engineering talent, to the work.

The public which gathers around this testing plant to see a locomotive which, while it is standing still, is doing its carefully measured work of hauling a large or small train at a low or high speed as the investigators require, thinks that this is all being done that it may "see the wheels go 'round." The engineer and the railway man see in it a new era of technical study. Over the panting, tugging locomotive, twenty-five or more men are engaged in observing what is going on inside of it, what work it is doing for the fuel consumed, what weaknesses it is developing, and what good points. When their computations are completed they can say, with accuracy, what the locomotive can do and at what cost. They are gaining information which, expressed in technical terms, is invaluable for the locomotive designer of the future. It means in its ultimate results the obtaining of the greatest amount of work for the least expenditure; and a consequent reduction in the cost of transportation. This kind of scientific investigation is of the utmost

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TESTING A LOCOMOTIVE

economic value. The greatest technical societies are assisting through advisory committees and the results of the tests will therefore meet with universal acceptance. Twelve of the most important types of recent locomotives are to be tested during the Exposition and the results published to the world.

In 1893 the use of steel for the parts of cars hitherto built of wood made its first appearance. It was then hardly more than an indication of coming things. So far has the use of steel advanced in eleven years, that it has appeared to the manufacturers to be hardly worth while to exhibit wooden freight cars at St. Louis, the only exception being refrigerator cars. Steel freight cars for every kind of service and steel parts for cars constitute an important and impressive exhibit of the new things which have come to stay. In passenger equipment, steel underframing also makes its appearance. The passenger cars exhibited show marked improvement in design, and in other respects a new era is foretold. The ornamentation and architectural features show a simpler and nobler taste. The meretricious has largely disappeared, and, together with an improved taste which is abreast of the best in home and public architecture, there is evident care for sanitary considerations. Whereas sleeping and parlor cars seem formerly to have been designed as nests for the microbe and especially planned to cultivate his species and enable him to make war to the best advantage upon the traveler, now that class of deadheads finds it hard to pass. The carvings, the upholstery and the fittings offer him comparatively no home. The Pullman Company, the American Car Foundry Company and the railroads seem to have united in a better art, not for art's sake only, but for public sanitation. The old cars are still running and must run until they are worn out; hence the public should visit and study these new designs, and profit both by the artistic and sanitary revolution.

The advancement in the construction of permanent way has properly kept pace with that in equipment. Heavier rails, improved signaling systems, more substantial and important structures—all are well illustrated in the exhibits. Improvements in all the various appliances for cars, locomotives and track show an advancement all along the line. These relate to economy of maintenance and operation, safety, comfort, higher speed, etc. The visitor to the Transportation building has, probably, his first attention attracted to a giant locomotive high up in the air which seems to move around in a dizzy waltz. While the driving wheels revolve with startling rapidity, the entire locomotive also moves around, borne by a steel turntable actuated by electricity. From some standpoints it is unfortunate that railway machinery actuated by electricity is shown in another department of the Exposition. The rapid development

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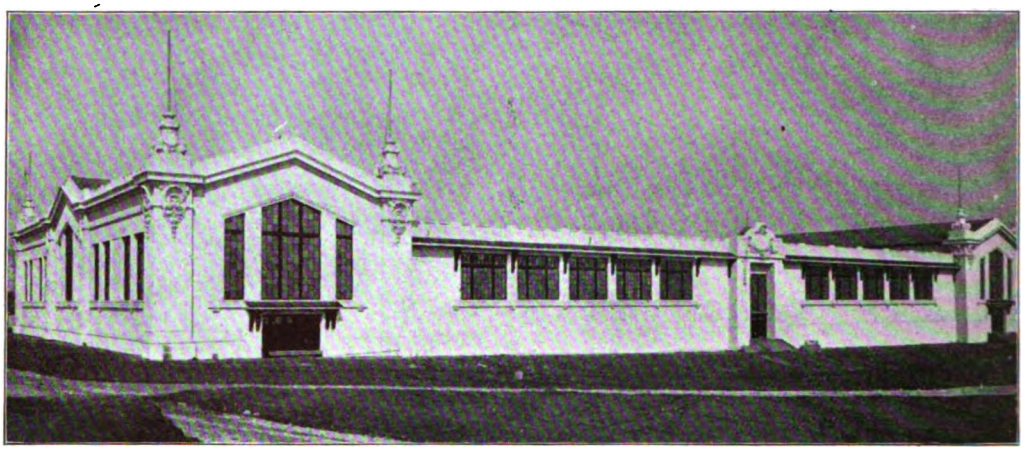
of electric traction is, however, shown here impressively by the cars for electric roads, which begin to vie in size as well as in elegance with the best steam railroad equipment. The development in this line is shown graphically by one company, which, beginning with the stage coach, exhibits the various types from the baby one-horse car up to the palatial coaches now used for interurban service.



THE FORESTRY BUILDING

V.—LUMBERMEN

BY

TARLETON H. BEAN

CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF FORESTRY

A PRACTICAL study for lumbermen at the Universal Exposition at St. Louis could be drawn from the enormous range of varieties of woods represented in the collection from not fewer than fifty-one foreign countries and states of the union. The Philippines alone possess about six hundred and sixty species of woods, of which fully four hundred are displayed at St. Louis. Canada has a structure composed of three thousand varieties of wood, some of which, of course, are grown only at experiment stations. Brazil, Argentine, Ceylon, Siam, Haiti, Japan, Venezuela, France, Peru, Cuba, Mexico, New Zealand, Honduras, Costa Rica, Austria, Belgium, China and Nicaragua, and twenty-one or more of the states of the United States have brought together their principal commercial woods and many of them have also collected woods which have merely a scientific value. North Carolina has gone still further and exhibits medicinal plants in great variety.

The wealth of woods available for construction and other uses is surprising even to the lumberman. These collections embrace all the modern forms of specimens known, such as log sections, planks with the bark on the edges and with half of the surface polished and the other half natural; kerfed logs partially finished and partially natural; lumber samples, all the various products of millwork and of stave factories, good pictures of the methods of utilizing and caring for forest products: lumbering, logging, transportation, milling, storing, drying, etc.

The United States Bureau of Forestry transparencies show typical single forest trees, groups of trees, forest scenes showing the different steps in the progress of cutting timber and converting it into lum-

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ber, and forests which have been affected by various causes. Some pictures show the effects of nature's efforts to renew entire forests, others show effects of planting where forests have been destroyed by fire, etc. This series is supplemented by a collection of large colored bromid photographs framed in the panels of the balustrade which surrounds the exhibit space. A large case containing long-leaf pine trunks shows the advantages of the new system of turpentining. Other cases exhibit insects and examples of their destructive work. The method of determining the strength of commercial timbers is shown by the testing machine, while the results of tests are shown by charts and tested timbers. There is also a large collection of timbers both from the United States and Europe treated by different preservative processes. Several specimens of building and other timbers are shown which have been in use for thirty years or more. The relief map of the United States, cast upon a section of a sphere sixteen feet in diameter, is one of the special features. The distribution and character of the forests are shown in different colors, also the location and extent of national and state forest reserves. The location of the proposed Appalachian forest reserve is shown on another relief map.

One of the greatest lessons of the Exposition is the utility of yellow pine for construction, inasmuch as four hundred million feet of this single species have been used in the buildings. There are many displays of yellow pine, but the one which has the greatest importance and value is the cottage of the Southern Lumber Manufacturers' Association and its accompanying exhibits. Another graphic illustration of the uses of numerous well-known woods for exterior as well as interior work is to be found in the House of Hoo-Hoo, a lumbermen's clubhouse, in which persons interested in the various industries assemble for social and business purposes.

Some of the foreign countries, notably France, display logs sawed in the shape and of the dimensions preferred by foreign buyers, thus furnishing a useful lesson which our manufacturers of mill products would do well to heed. France also has bundles of split laths to be used for building purposes which agree in the main with the sawed laths of the United States, prepared very much like the early shakes or clapboards of olden times.

Japan conveys a useful lesson in showing the multiplicity of products to be obtained from bamboo and rattan, as well as the use of wood chips in making ladies' hats, fancy ribbons, braids, etc. Other exhibits show paper manufactured from yellow pine shavings and from catalpa, while Michigan shows how important salt industries can be developed by waste forest products.

Lumbermen may see the crude tree and its finished products side by side. They may study the methods and the effects of

THE PALACE OF MACHINERY, LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

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stains and finishes. They may go farther and see clearly how the forests may be conservatively used and still preserved indefinitely, and they may see the methods by which the states and the general government seek to protect the forests necessary to conserve the water supply, and how to restore the devastated land.

VI.—MINERS

BY

J. A. HOLMES

CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF MINES AND METALLURGY

WHILE in its main purpose and plan of installation the exhibit in the Palace of Mines and Metallurgy is essentally utilitarian and practical, yet there are many features likely to engage the attention of connoisseurs in art and especially students in science. In addition to these, by far the greatest interest engaged will be that of miners and metallurgists. The purpose of the display has been to follow up as closely as possible the general scheme of classification, and this classification in its turn is not only comprehensive in range but practical and clear in the method of adaptation. At the initiation of this work exhibitors, whether states, nations or individuals, were counseled so to follow the classification that their exhibits could be methodically approached and readily interpreted. So well has this purpose been consummated that any observer having an intelligent conception of what he desires to see and learn can very readily find access to these special features and obtain from the collections themselves the special information desired, especially if aided by the guardian in charge.

Judging that the readers of THE WORLD TO-DAY will approach these exhibits with intelligence and singleness of purpose, a brief reference to the general character and range of the scheme of classification in this department will be of assistance. The classification is made under five groups numbering from 115 to 119, inclusive, and each group in its turn comprehends the following subjects: First, Working of Mines, Ore Beds and Stone Quarries; second, Minerals and Stones, and their Utilization; third, Mine Models, Maps, Photographs, followed by Metallurgy in group 118, and Literature of Mining and Metallurgy in group 119. These groups are, in their turn, subdivided into classes numbering from 667 to 719, inclusive, and cover in these sub-heads nearly the full range of crude material, processes and products, as connected with Mining and Metallurgy. A few special instances from each group will serve to indicate the more particular features. For instance, under class 672, comprising "Electric, compressed air, or other motors, for use in opening and operating mines and quarries, and for operating equipment for handling ores and other minerals," is an exhibit by the J. George Leyner Engineering Works Company, of Denver, Colorado. In addition to their improved compressors is a drill known as the Water Leyner Compressed Air Drill. The principle of this drill differs materially from many others now in use in the fact that instead of a rigid piston blow the drill acts more on the principle used by the miner himself when he strikes the end of the piston with a hammer. These blows rapidly delivered by a compressed air piston and cylinder reach from eight hundred to one thousand blows a minute and the machine in operation in the building under satisfactory conditions will penetrate hard, fine grain granite at the rate of five inches per minute. Water is supplied through an orifice in the drill that simplifies the cleansing of the hole, reducing the work of the operator to a minimum. In the Palace of Mines and Metallurgy there are other operating exhibits kindred to that of the Leyner Drill. Of these the most prominent and one to be most appreciated by the assayer and

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chemist are the improvements in preparing metal for the crucible and balance by aid of special crushing and grinding appliances and reducing the same through gasoline, gas and other furnaces. This exhibit is made by the F. W. Braun Company, and is certainly one of the most interesting in view of its significance to the assayer and miner.

Turning from these practical operating appliances the attention of the miner will necessarily be directed to the displays of minerals, followed by that of mineral products. In these mineral displays each state seems to have compassed a full range. The galena of Missouri and Colorado and the carbonates of Arizona are exploited in every manner of their occurrence as lead-producing substances. The gold ores range from the quartz of California through the tellurides and sulphates of Nevada to the placer sands of Montana, the Klondyke and other mining districts.

Of all the minerals here displayed, the most extensive exhibit is that of coal and coal productions. Here, as is natural, the State of Pennsylvania is conspicuously present, just as Colorado is along the lines of the more precious minerals. Pennsylvania's exhibit certainly merits the studious investigation of the inquirer, since there seems to be nothing of interest omitted, not only in the way of crude material but in that of operating models. The latter demonstrate the methods of mining, handling and transporting to market the coal and coke that form such an important part of the mineral output of the United States. In a less exhaustive way the Indian Territory, States of Illinois, Indiana, Kentucky and others have exploited their coals and coal productions, but in a manner that seems to have covered the whole possible range of inquiry. Preëminent among the instructive features of the whole exhibit will be found those properly classified under group 117, including mine models, maps, photographs, etc. Here it would be difficult to find any special coal mining center that has not been exploited by means of operating models illustrating, first, the method of natural occurrence and then the processes of mining and subsequent metallurgical treatment.

Associated as they naturally are with coal, we find that iron and steel have been given certain prominence through several important displays. The chief among these as illustrating metallurgical skill and progress within the last few years is that of the Worth Brothers Company. Here are rolled sheets of length, width and thickness such as to excite the admiration and wonder of any metallurgical artisan or expert. Boilers, plates and tubes are exploited in their perfection and a study of the exhibit is likely to result in a very general acquaintance with all the recent metallurgical triumphs in this special field. Allied to this matter of rolled plates, naturally is that of hardening surfaces, and adapting them to armor plate and weapons of offense, as exhibited by the Bethlehem Steel Company. In this same connection one naturally has his attention attracted by the display of manganese steel, as exhibited by the Taylor Iron & Steel Company, and of the nickel alloy as shown in the exhibit of the International Nickel Company. Both of these exhibits mark the distinct advance made in recent years and indicate possibilities as to the future far in advance of any yet obtained. As regards zinc, also, the display of the Lanyon Zinc Company demonstrates the wide range of uses to which this metal can be adapted and emphasizes its architectural value, as well as its uses in less artistic lines.

Possibly, if one were to consider relative values by absolute novelty of discovery and research, the exhibits of radioactive minerals will command the most general attention. Here we have a chemical and metallurgical discovery hardly a year old, fraught with possibilities beyond any calculation.

After emerging from the Palace of Mines and Metallurgy one should visit the exterior area known as the Gulch. Here he will find installed and in operation, full-sized stamp mills, aerial tramways, oil well appliances, etc. The most interesting historical exhibit is that showing the methods of copper mining among the Indians of Mexico. Nor should one overlook the thoroughly equipped coal testing and briquetting plant, together with an operating pottery, a special cement display and working foundry, and a complete assay office conducted by students for the general benefit of all interested.

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MINES AND METALLURGY BUILDING

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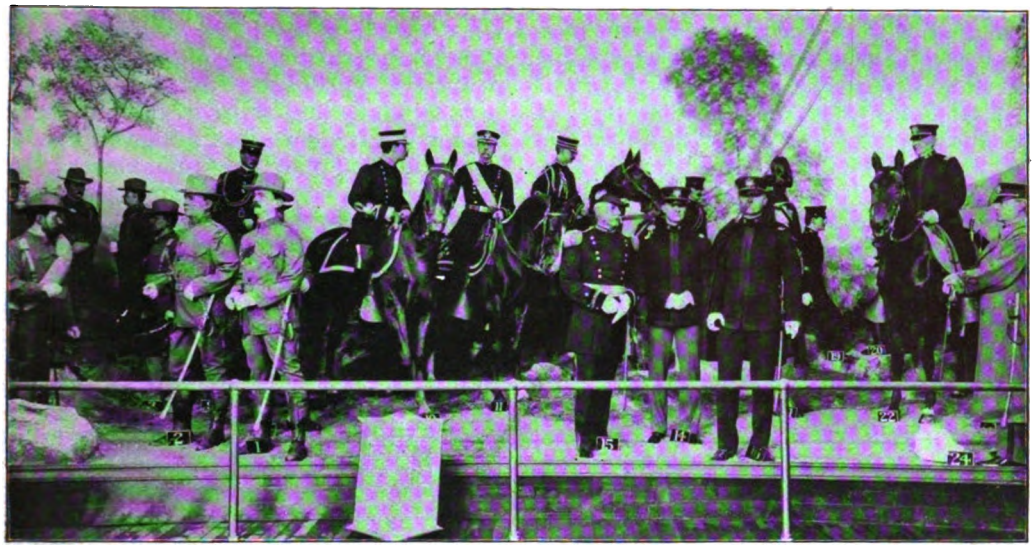

WARFARE, OLD AND NEW

BY

FRANK EBERLE

MILITARY ADVISER TO PRESIDENT FRANCIS

TROPHIES of the battles that have been won form an interesting part of the United States Army and Navy exhibit at the World's Fair, but there is an additional attraction in the display of fighting equipment with which it is intended that fresh victories shall ensue should future contests be waged. By contrasting old methods of warfare with the new, the visitor is entertainingly shown the improvements lately introduced into the service. The exhibit, therefore, is an educational one and opportunity is given for observing the progress made in the science of war.

The principal exhibits are in the Government building, but there is an outside exhibit of siege guns and part of a modern fort, and in the Philippine department is an exhibit of captured guns and other implements of war to which the valor of both the army and navy may properly lay claim. These guns came from the Spanish warships at Manila and the forts of the insurgents, and the small arms were taken in the various battles with the insurgents. Among these curious weapons of war are cannon made of pieces of old gas pipe encased in wooden frames and tightly wrapped with wire and iron bands. They are crude guns for modern times and the troops that used such weapons against the rapid-fire machine guns with which their opponents were armed certainly had more courage than judgment.

Another feature of the War exhibit is a Filipino carabo and cart, showing the kind of transportation used by the American troops in the Philippines in 1898 and 1899. The carabo belongs to the water buffalo species, a type peculiar to the Philippine Islands, and is easily trained for domestic purposes. An old army wagon that participated in Sherman's march to the sea and an ambulance that was used as an office wagon by General George H. Thomas during the American Civil War, form a unique feature of the War Department's exhibit.

West Point, whose matchless military academy has given to the world some of its best trained army officers, has a department of its own in this exhibit. There is a monument of guns and swords, sur-

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mounted with a group of veteran flags that have become tattered and torn in the service. On each side stands the figure of a West Point cadet, one in the uniform of cadet adjutant, the other with a gun, doing sentry duty. Portraits of famous generals who received their training at West Point decorate the walls of this department, and on every side are reminders of that grand old institution, the United States Military Academy. Here, too, are many famous battle flags under whose folds American armies bravely fought in foreign wars and as brother against brother in the Civil War.

The naval exhibition contains several notable features, one of which is the deck of an American warship, fully equipped for action, showing the great and small guns and the methods of handling ammunition, the wardrooms, surgeon's operating-room and other interesting parts of the ship. Small models of the great cruisers and battleships of the American navy give the public a good idea of these defenders of the flag. The new Naval Academy, with its many buildings, grounds and ships in the harbor at Annapolis, is shown in a miniature model occupying a place of prominence. A theater with moving pictures, showing naval maneuvers of various kinds, is located in one end of this exhibit. A group of wax figures in naval uniforms shows the different uniforms worn by the officers and men of the navy on divers occasions. Rapid-fire machine guns, used in the navy, form another interesting part of this exhibit.

The army and navy exhibits are made more realistic by the presence of soldiers and marines on guard, who see that Uncle Sam's interesting articles are not defaced or handled by curious visitors. They are closely watched by faithful sentinels and serve as object lessons, showing to the world the progress, power and greatness of the American army and navy.

THE SCULPTURE DISPLAY AT THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION

BY

JAMES WILLIAM PATTISON

CLASS LECTURER AT THE ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO; AUTHOR OF "PAINTERS SINCE LEONARDO," ETC.

WHAT is the use of classifying art-workers? Why call one a sculptor and another a painter? Given a due amount of talent and the essential training of senses and hands, people can do any sort of art work: etching to-day, pottery to-morrow and painting the next day. In all the centuries, painters have executed superb sculpture and sculptors have astonished the world with their paintings. A full appreciation of these conditions is essential to an understanding of the sculpture display at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition.

It frequently happens that a trained painter produces an excellent result at his first attempts with sculpture; though the artists exclusively sculptors generally pronounce it "too pictorial"; that is, lacking in sculpturesque qualities. I shall try to make plain the expression "sculpturesque qualities," and it is easy to illustrate it by referring to Michael Angelo's frescoes in the Sistine Chapel, because photographs of them are to be seen in all art works. His prophets and sybils in the papal chapel are painted as if a part of the architectural moldings (which he also painted on that ceiling), as if the entire effect were an architectural imitation, made with paint. The figures are as dignified as the architectural forms, long and simple of line, reserved as to details. No attention is given to textures of wool or cotton or silk, even the hair is treated as if cut in marble. Raphael's Madonnas are so composed that they would make fine sculpture groups, but are rather too

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"COWBOYS," BY REMINGTON

pictorial, soft and suave in contours. Facts of this sort are the crucial tests by which to judge of the virtue of certain new movements in evidence at St. Louis.

While wandering about in one of the sculpture sections of the Art Palace, I met the man in charge of the work of installation, the room not yet having been opened to the public. Just at his elbow was a marble statue of a nude boy of twelve years in the joy of clasping a freshly caught fish to his naked chest. Fish and boy both squirmed with excitement as the wet thing slapped its tail against the soft skin of the triumphant captor. Soft of line, the statue was breathing with vital truth to life. Pointing to it, I said: "Why do you place that lively thing here in a corner?"

"I have tucked it out of sight because it is not sculpture," he said. Of course, it was not good in his eyes, because too pictorial in treatment. As you go through the galleries, you may ask yourself many times the question, "Are these modeled things too pictorial?" The tendency in this direction is very evident just now. A certain eminent American sculptor said of the equestrian memorial to General Sherman, by Saint Gaudens, the one with the floating, winged spirit in front of the earnest-faced warrior, "Our fine sculptor is getting pictorial, isn't he?" In truth, it must be admitted that were there no "angel" in that group, the horse and rider alone would have a greater monumental effect, and that their swift-forward movement is not conducive to the reposefulness supposedly essential to good sculpture. This can be compared with the equestrian Washington, by Daniel C. French, which is standing face to face with the equestrian Hooker (by the same sculptor) in the United States section at the fair. Both these are absolutely in repose, and purely sculptural.

Upon entering the Pike at the Exposition, a strange sculpture group will certainly arrest the attention. It was made by the painter and illustrator, Remington, and represents, like his pictures, mounted cowboys in violent action. Four of the reckless fellows on their undignified little horses seem to gallop out of the Pike, throwing their bodies and arms about and shooting off revolvers into the air. For monumental purposes, these four horses and this tangle of gesticulation are mounted on a pedestal which is too low to be effective; though, were it

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THE VILLARD MONUMENT, BY KARL BITTER

higher, the effect of mingling in the crowd would be lost. Placed so as to seem to be a part of the surging multitude their essential literalness and realism are evident. Of course the work is well done, as Remington understands his art thoroughly, but it offends the sculptors. That clutter of sixteen pony legs, not to mention the boots and spurs, makes an absurd underpinning to a monumental group. No doubt the artist would be willing, on a second attempt, to follow somewhat more closely the laws of sculptural effect. It is right here that we find the key to the new situation. In all the national art sections we are called upon to confront this same problem; the movement is universal, though contested by the schoolmen. Germany's exhibit is an object lesson in what imperial control can do toward killing this spontaneous desire to free sculpture (and painting, too) from superscholasticism.

The American, Karl Bitter, who is Chief of Sculptural Decoration for the fair, has on view (United States section) a group of three figures engaged in signing the purchase treaty. These individuals are portraits of historical characters, each literally represented in his picturesque clothes, and each in naturalistic action. It is purely pictorial, but would appear, if on canvas and in color, as if conscientiously submitted to such laws of dignity and historical impressiveness as the gravity of the situation demanded. It would never be classed as a "genre picture." It is sculpturally treated. Bitter's "Villard Memorial" is, on the contrary, purely monumental, though very human in treatment. A powerfully built man, nude, has thrown his exhausted form against a support. Every big muscle reveals physical collapse, his relaxed hand scarcely able to grasp the handle of the sledge hammer with which he has struck for so many years mighty blows in a nation's industries. This ending of strenuous life shows us a real man, not a Greek abstraction. It is warm life that still lingers in the dying laborer, not a pagan god's academical coldbloodedness.

Lorado Taft's "Solitude of the Soul" (American section) shows four nude figures, groping, with closed eyes, to dis-

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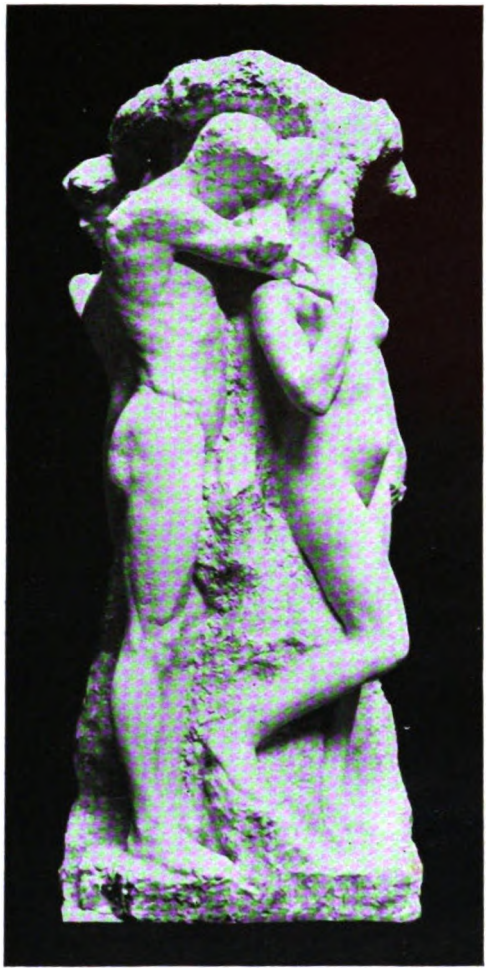
cover each the identity of his fellow. The group is monumental, but he has treated the flesh humanly. The muscles could almost quiver should the figures actually walk. This also is a revolt against abstract classicism. Mr. Mulligan's massive figures of miners and diggers, with hammer or shovel in hand, are absolutely literal, but so dignified as to marry themselves happily with the architecture they accompany.

The German art exhibit was personally controlled by the Kaiser, who thinks that nothing is worthy unless done as the Romans did it, and who therefore hates humanized sculpture. Few of the innovators are properly represented. To see the real spirit of German art the collection of courts and chambers arranged by that nation in the Varied Industries building must be studied. Here the furniture is designed to accompany the walls, the decorations are in love with the potteries, the bronzes and carpets. Sculpture walks hand in hand with painting and it is all simply art, united and indivisible, and—humanized. Here is the work of Germany's best sculptors, but you will hardly be able to discover their names, owing to lack of cataloguing.



"SOLITUDE OF THE SOUL," BY LORADO TAFT

The section of sculpture, on Art Hill, is filled with figures which our sculptors declare stupid. But Max Klinger has busts. He uses every sort of combination of materials in any one work and colors in all sorts of ways; always sculptural but always human. His handiwork of the same character is also at the Industries building. Begas is popular, Beyrer chaste. Habich does his own casting, chasing, repoussé work and coloring, being a rampant secessionist, and is interesting and human. Volkmann, though a classicist, has a genius of his own and flavors with individual essences. The others are all severe or pretty, and —pretty dry.

As the French government supplied the money for exhibition purposes, the officials made the art show "official" and uninteresting "correct." But Madame Cazin (widow of the painter) is vital in her artistic earthenware, and the great Rodin sent his much discussed "Thinker," for you to judge—not hastily. Saint Marceau has made great works, and so have Mercier, and Fremier, and Falguire, the little *cire-perdue* affairs being highly artistic. Barrias sometimes breaks away from traditions and never goes bad, though sometimes grander. Bartholomé has been nobler than in his "Young Lady Dressing Her Hair." It is in the central room of the French section, in the cases of silver medals, the engraved gems, the wonderful jewelry and the pottery, that French "sculpture" triumphs. Lalique is truly great, with golden faces and figures, and crooked pearls. Brateau makes sculpture with his block tin table

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clock and salt cellars. Boutet de Monvel (Charles, cousin to the painter) sculptures combs and stomachers admirably, and it is all humanized art.

Sweden sends some bronzes, not always large, that breathe the same northern air to be found in her marvelously vital painting. Look at it well; see how human it is and still so sculptural. In Holland's and Belgium's sections are similar departures from Greek and Roman traditions; working people in working clothes, toilworn and earnest, sympathetic and still properly reserved, as good sculpture allows of no sixteen tangled legs of galloping horses under the mass of its grouping.

Italy: Well she is not "great" in sculpture any more, though abominably "clever." Please don't buy any of that fascinating marble-lace, or any of those "cute" boys and babes, that are displayed so profusely outside the fine art exhibit. It is human enough, but offensively unsculptural, as well as "bad" in every way, judged by all standards, classical or secessionist. In the art exhibit some pieces are pretty good.

In Austria the secessionists controlled officialism. All the display is superbly vital, irritatingly novel, but powerfully human. Her best art work is in the national pavilion, over near the Administration building. However, though a mile

"THE SIGNING OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE TREATY," BY KARL BITTER

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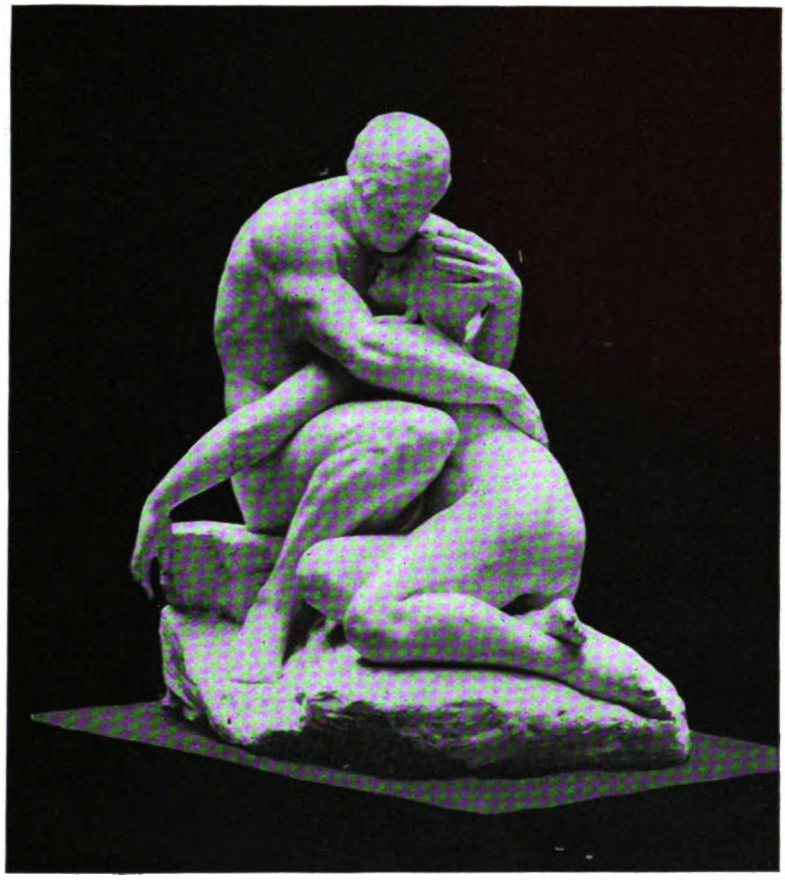

"ADAM AND EVE," BY PETER BREUER

away from Art Hill, the objects-of-art and the three galleries of paintings in the pavilion are listed and numbered in the Official Art Catalogue of Fine Arts. See how sculpture, painting, woodwork, carpets, pots and pans and pictures are all one: a happy family of sisters and brothers. Its name is not Sculpture, nor Painting, nor Architecture, nor Crafts. Its name is Art. Believe me; you will go there more than once, and if you do not, the worse for you.

Japan—is she declining in art? Possibly she is too mechanical sometimes. But there are bronze statuettes in the art section which rival in vitality, in naturalness, in humanity, and in reserved sculptural treatment the best of the same sort in any European exhibit. See the "Grandfather and Granddaughter Ploughing." Is it not pathetic, natural, beautifully observed, and still severely sculptural? That boy who tugs at the bucket too heavy for him—have we not all been boys like that? And is it not as reserved and law-abiding as any sculpture at the fair?

In the Hungarian art section is a little group of bronze statuettes which you must see; beautifully natural and still severely simple. These would make the Kaiser of Germany quite ill, did any of his subjects claim sculpturesque qualities for them. They are the extreme of literalism, though still monumental. Some of them remind us of a man called Donatello, who lived long ago. See the "Noble-lady of Old Times," the "Anonymous," the "Love," the "Aunt Kate" and the boy's portrait, all in bronze. These are pure sculpture, though intensely natural. The best movement in evidence is the war against Roman traditions and classical slavery, in sculpture.

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A CHILD OF THE PLAINS

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A GROUP OF PATAGONIAN GIANTS

THE FOREIGNERS AT THE EXPOSITION

BY

WALTER WILLIAMS

COMMISSIONER TO THE FOREIGN PRESS

CIVILIZATION in the making is the chief exhibit at St. Louis. The largest interest lies ever in people, not in their products. Humanity in the raw attracts humanity that bears veneer. So, when the last word has been said, it is the foreigner at the Exposition, the unfamiliar atom of the human race, upon which the gaze of the crowd rests.

Foreigners are at the World's Fair in two capacities. Some are brought as live exhibits to be seen and studied, others, the greater number, come as spectators to study and to see. The individual classification which each visitor mentally makes for his own use combines both classes into one. All are exhibits, whether catalogued by the Exposition Company or not. The surging people are of more vital concern than the crowded exhibit palaces. The human document discounts looms and wheels and glass bulbs and lacquered ware. Man is of more value as a World's Fair feature than many pictures.

Scientists can study at St. Louis the steps by which man has risen from the savage to the civilized, from the unclad eater of dog to the clothed feasters upon things more palatable, from the dwellers under roofs of blue sky and black skin to the occupants of houses of brown stone. For as exhibits, advertised or actual, all tribes, nations and conditions of men are represented. It is not, however, it may be frankly said, in a spurt of scientific investigation, even under conditions so favorable, that the foreigners view and are viewed. The 999 look upon the foreigners with all their various habits and customs as an animated panorama. Only the thousandth man studies the "ologies."

Whether as exhibits or exhibitors nearly every tribe and race of man is at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. The scientist and the casual visitor find a panorama too extensive for the canvass of any one brain to carry away in its comprehensiveness. The primitive peo-

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A SEVILLE DANCING GIRL

SPANISH SERENADERS

FROM SUNNY SPAIN

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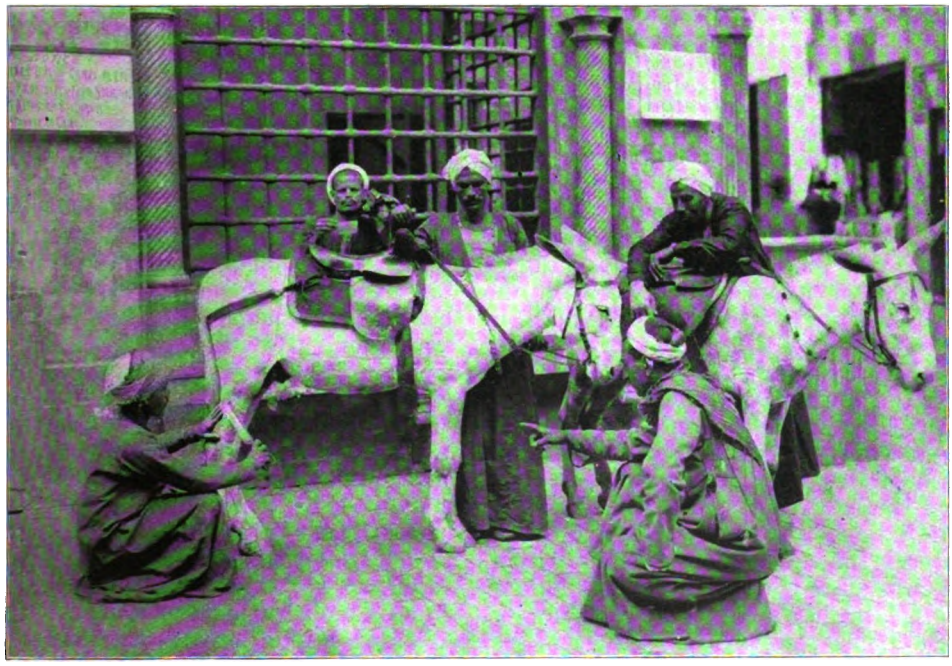
IBRAHIM, CHIEF OF SERVANTS

A NUBIAN RUNNER, CAIRO



THE DONKEY'S TOILET

TYPES FROM THE FAR EAST

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STREET MUSICIANS IN CAIRO

ples, nature's children, and the most intensely civilized, the children of art, are jumbled into a kaleidoscopic mass.

The Zunis, closest kinsfolk of the unnamed dwellers in the cliffs of the Southwest; the hairy Ainus, aborigines of Japan; the giants of Patagonia, athletic remnants of a once mighty tribe; the little black pigmies of Central Africa, in appearance, except for tails, first cousins of other tree-climbers; the fierce Moros from the wilds of the Philippine Islands; Esquimaux in furs and Igorrotes in breech-clouts—these are but a scant half dozen of the two score of strange people from the corners of the earth. The foreign nations who occupy high place in the scale of civilization—Great Britain, the German Empire and all the long and lengthening lists—have sent of their best to St. Louis and have then come to see. At a dinner given by President Francis to foreign journalists, thirty-seven different and distinct nations were represented and post-prandial speeches were made in eight languages. "I am interested in the American factories and their exhibits," said a German of eminence, "but I am most interested in finding out what there is in the American himself which makes the factories and their products." He found opportunity for such study at St. Louis, as the American visitor finds opportunity in the study of German, French, Russian, Japanese, Spanish, Italian and all the others. The foreigner may discover who and what the American is. The American may discover, by observation of the foreigner, who he, the American, child of all the foreigners, is and why.

As at all Expositions, at St. Louis one can see the real foreigners, the made-up foreigners, and the Exposition habitues. The real foreigner is, of course, the one of genuine interest to the American visitor, as he is the one who has genuine interest in all things American. He brings the foreign spirit into the fair and converts the particular space where he has an exhibit in charge, or where he makes his temporary abode, into a section of his homeland transplanted thus far abroad. The real foreigner is the real World's Fair. The made-up foreigner is a sham for Exposition purposes. The Exposition habitue is cosmopolitan. He belongs to no nation. He is not a foreigner anywhere. He follows Expositions as the street crowd follows a band of music—Chicago, Vienna, Paris, Buffalo, St. Louis—and has a sleek store-look in consequence. The foreigner with custom stamps on his trunks and with wide-open eyes, in the hotels and on the plazas, though unlabeled as an exhibit, and the foreigner imported with as much of his rude or polished environment as is movable for Exposition display, these make the World's Fair a fair of all the world. And all the world—the primitive, the barbarian, the civilized world—is at the fair.

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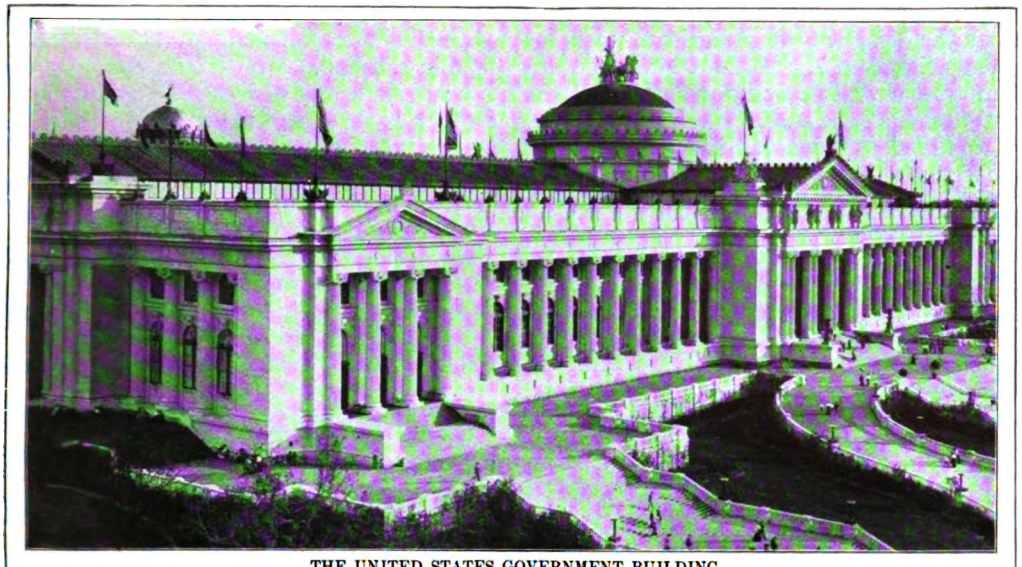

THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING

THE EXPOSITION AS A HISTORICAL MUSEUM

BY

EDMUND MITCHELL

IN itself a great historical conception, the Louisiana Purchase Exposition is rich in material for the student of history. If the sightseer goes to St. Louis with the object of surveying the World's Fair from this standpoint alone, he will find that many days, nay weeks, may be spent, and yet his task be left uncompleted. In the State buildings, the United States Government building, the pavilions of the visiting nations, even on the Pike itself, licensed quarter of fun and frolic, the avenues of research are almost endless.

To begin with the clubhouses, which no fewer than thirty-seven individual states and territories have erected within the grounds, we find that at least sixteen are notable from the historic point of view. Twelve of these are reproductions of buildings directly associated with famous men or famous events, while the other four have assembled within the walls of strictly modern mansions relics of deepest national interest.

First mention may fittingly be made of the Virginia building. Here we have a replica of Jefferson's beautiful home, Monticello, or "little mountain," in Albemarle County, Virginia. It is a curious fact that while the name of Jefferson has become synonymous with simplicity of living, the house that he built from his own plans has been described by an eminent architect as "the only palace in the United States." Truly it is a noble mansion, a blending of the French and Italian styles of classical architecture. A lofty colonnaded porch lends dignity to the exterior, while, within, the spacious hall at once conveys the impression of commodious grandeur, where nothing is "cribbed, cabined or confined." In the main reception-room hangs the painting by Sully, the last portrait for which Jefferson sat. Beneath is the life-size statue loaned by the University of Virginia, the founding of which was his greatest pride. Flanking the statue are the busts of two other distinguished sons of Virginia—Edgar Allen

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Poe, the greatest of American poets as some critics hold, and Matthew Fontain Maury, scientist of world-wide fame, "the pathfinder of the seas."

In the decorations and the furnishings Jefferson's taste for bric-a-brac from Europe, in preference to things of the old colonial style, is clearly manifested. Here is a clock he brought from Italy; it has kept the time since 1765, and is still industriously ticking after 150 years of continuous service. In the next room is his wife's desk. elaborately inlaid with pewter. Scattered about are several dainty pieces of furniture of French workmanship or design. On the whole, however, duly authenticated relics of Monticello are not numerous, for Jefferson died a poor man, and the family belongings were speedily sold and widely dispersed. It is due to the women of Virginia, working through their society of "Daughters of the American Revolution," that this present collection, small but of priceless value, has been made, and after the Exposition an effort will be put forth to keep it together as the nucleus of a national Jeffersonian museum.

Across the way from the State house proper is an old Virginia cabin that was built just one hundred years ago on Patrick Henry's farm. It contains an assortment of old relics, but is interesting mainly because it shows us the actual processes of preparing, spinning and weaving cotton, wool and flax, just as they were performed in thousands of American homes at the time of the Louisiana purchase. A venerable figure sits in the cabin, Mrs. Nancy Self. She is 101 years of age, has five generations of descendants and can boast of having lived under every President of the United States except Washington. The old lady is in possession of all her faculties, and speaks vivaciously with visitors who care to engage her in conversation on old times.

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LOG CABIN BUILT AND OCCUPIED BY EX-PRESIDENT GRANT IN 1854
General Fred Grant in the Foreground. (See page 1198)

The Cabildo in New Orleans, where the Supreme Court still holds its sittings, was the building in which the actual transfer of the Louisiana territory was made in 1803, and Louisiana has appropriately

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THE VIRGINIA STATE BUILDING
A Reproduction of Monticello, ex-President Jefferson's Home

THE LOUISIANA BUILDING
Modeled after the Cabildo in New Orleans where the transfer of the territory was made in 1803

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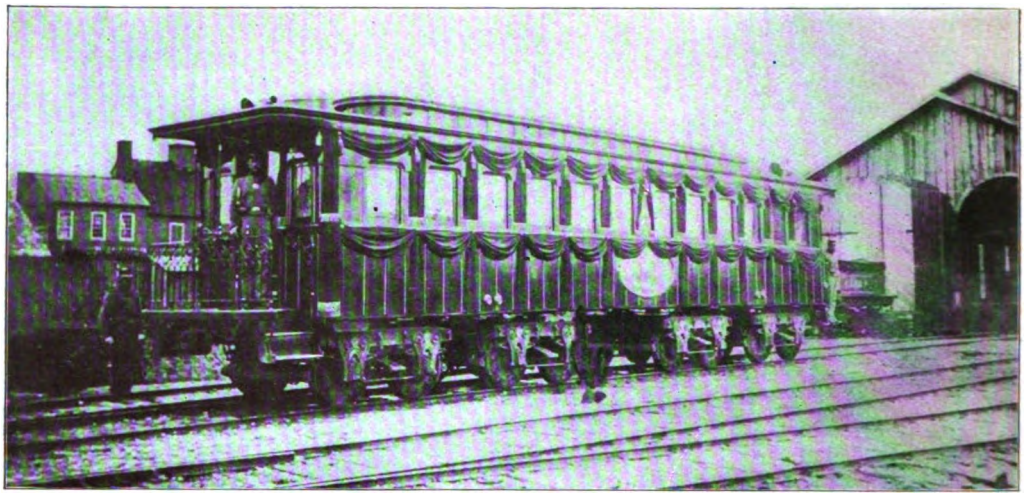

PRESIDENT LINCOLN'S PRIVATE CAR

taken this as a model for her State house at the Exposition. Within is a vast collection of oil paintings, furniture, silverware, china, porcelain, weapons, and other antique treasures, all gathered from the homes of old southern families. Among the paintings are two of special interest, by T. du Thulstrup: LaSalle, in 1682, taking possession of the country from the Indians in the name of Louis XIV., and the scene in front of the Cabildo in 1803, when the French flag was finally lowered and that of the United States hoisted in its place. There are numerous portraits of those associated with the Louisiana purchase: of Napoleon as First Consul; James Monroe, afterward President; General Wilkinson, commanding the American troops at New Orleans at the time of the transfer; Governor Claiborne, the first governor after the transfer, and others. We also see the actual desk on which the treaty of transfer was signed by Count de Lousatte, Minister from France to the United States. In the prison attached to the Cabildo are stocks over two hundred years old, inherited from the Spanish through the French. Altogether the building is one that provides rich store for the relic hunter.

The Tennessee State building, which stands not far from that of Virginia, is an exact replica of The Hermitage, near Nashville, Tennessee, the residence of General Andrew Jackson, seventh President of the United States. The style of architecture is delightful, and thoroughly representative of the old southern homes: big halls on both floors, big double parlors, a big balcony on the upper story running the whole length of the house, where of an evening the entire family would assemble. In the entrance hall the actual wall-paper of French design, representing the wanderings of Ulysses, has been reproduced by hand painting. Downstairs we visit the dining-room in which five Presidents of the United States have been entertained, and the bedroom in which Jackson died. In this last is the original furniture: the four-post mahogany bed, tables, chairs, old brass fender and andirons, with the portrait of Mrs. Jackson on the wall. Upstairs is the room which the Marquis Lafayette occupied in 1820, also with the original furniture complete.

Rich also in historical associations and relics is the Mississippi State building, reproducing Beauvoir, the last home of Jefferson Davis, on the shores of the Gulf a few miles from New Orleans. Beauvoir, like the homes of Jefferson and Jackson, is a noble and commodious mansion, with high ceilings, big doors, numerous and ample windows reaching to the floor, and broad piazzas running all around the house. The furniture throughout is that which was actually in use by the Davis family, for everything seems to have been faithfully and lovingly preserved. We

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see, among many other things, the comfortable divans in the hall, the old piano that had descended to Jefferson Davis from his mother, and a sideboard made in the time of King George. There has also been included in the collection the bed in which the Confederate President died, when visiting a friend in New Orleans. Another addition is a fine painting of one of the most stirring naval scenes of the Civil War, the Confederate gunboat William H. Webb, running the Federal blockade of New Orleans on April 24, 1865.

The Georgia building is built on the plan of General B. Gordon's home at Kirkwood, three miles from Atlanta. The noble colonnaded porch is the most striking feature. Within, the finishing and the furnishing are of to-day, there having been no attempt made to collect original furniture or family heirlooms.

Illinois, while erecting a magnificent state headquarters without any thought of historic reproduction, has converted one of her halls into a museum in honor of her greatest statesman, Abraham Lincoln. Here has been gathered together a vast number of Lincoln relics, chiefly loaned by the State Historical Society at Springfield, but with contributions also from Washington, Chicago and elsewhere. There are separate cabinets dealing with Lincoln's ancestry, his youth, his marriage and domestic life, his career as a lawyer and as a member of Congress, the Presidential campaign of 1860, the President and his cabinet, the War of Rebellion, and the closing tragedy of his death. Altogether many hundreds of documents, letters and personal belongings are assembled, the mere cataloguing of which would occupy many pages. Above the cabinets hang several portraits, including the steel engravings by Marshall and Littlefield, finest of all.

Hard by the Illinois building is the Lincoln Museum, where other relics of the martyred President will be found. Chief among these is the funeral car that carried the remains from Washington to Springfield, Illinois, a distance of 1,662 miles, the journey taking thirteen days, and the body being viewed by over a million and a half of mourners. The same car had been used by Lincoln and his cabinet during the closing months of the war. Some of the original furniture is shown, including the President's sleeping couch, specially made for him and duly proportioned to his great stature. Among the numerous letters, pictures, etc., displayed on the outside of the car, is one of the actual bills of the play used in Ford's Theater on the night of the tragedy. The Kentucky log cabin in which Lincoln lived as a child with his parents from 1813 to 1816, prior to the family's removal to Indiana, is also shown. A card tells the story that the farm on which this modest shack stood was sold by Lincoln's father for $20 in cash and ten barrels of whisky, several of the latter being lost in the Ohio River by the capsizing of the raft that was transporting the family belongings. Another exhibit is the bed in which Lincoln used to sleep in the postmaster's house at Springfield, but in this case there was no extension of the regulation six-foot length.

Connecticut has filled her State building with colonial furniture and ornaments of surpassing beauty and interest. The exterior reproduces the old Sigourney home at Hartford. The interior is constructed with the actual woodwork taken from another Connecticut mansion recently demolished, the Slater home at Norwich, all of it over one hundred years old. The furniture belongs to the two centuries 1620-1820, and nearly every piece has some interesting legend attached. Here, for example, is "Brother Jonathan's" chair, used in his church pew by Governor Jonathan Trumbull, the intimate friend of Washington. Near by is a handsome bible box, filled with the old bibles used by each member of the family. We also see a chair that came over in the Mayflower, originally the property of the Rev. Elder Brewster, from whom it has descended through many generations to its present owners.

The Vermont building is a reproduction of the old Constitution House in the town of Windsor. From here the first prohibition of slavery in the history of the world was promulgated, being incorporated in the state constitution of 1777. New Hampshire, occupying an adjoining site, has taken as the model of her building the birthplace of Daniel Webster. Both buildings contain furniture and relics of old colonial days. New Jersey shows us the Ford Tavern at Norristown,

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Washington's headquarters for two winters during the Revolution. The old-fashioned style of construction, the boards laid flat, edge to edge, will be noted, also the fine hall running right through the building.

The Massachusetts building is a composite reproduction of old colonial styles of architecture. The façade is after the celebrated Bullfinch front of the state capitol, while rooms revive the old Senate chamber and the old House of Representatives. The building is filled with cherished relics and mementoes of Massachusetts history, loaned by societies and individuals.

In the palatial Kentucky building we find a room furnished just as it was occupied by Stephen Collins Foster, during a visit to Federal Hill, Bardstown. Here he got the inspiration for the song "My Old Kentucky Home," and in the corner stands the very desk on which he penned the immortal verses.

In the Pennsylvania building is the most venerated relic in all the fair—Liberty Bell. But in the little building that represents New Mexico will be found a still more venerable bell, cast in Spain in 1355, or 127 years before the discovery of America. It was brought over by the Franciscans to New Mexico, and has since tolled from the towers of several generations of churches. New Mexico shows many other relics: ancient maps and documents, Spanish silverware, and Aztec ornaments of hammered gold and silver. California's building is an exact copy of the Santa Barbara Mission, built in 1786 by the Franciscan fathers, even the cracks and weather-worn tinting of the walls being shown. Within, the furniture is all modern, but strictly on the old mission patterns.

Of quite another type is the Oregon building. This is a reproduction of Fort Clatsop, in which Lewis and Clark passed the winter of 1805-06 on the shore of the Pacific, a few miles south of the Columbia River. The great logs of fir and pine, the palisade, and the outlook towers, all fastened with wooden pins and without a single nail being used in the construction, present us with a vivid picture of frontier life in the pioneer days. In one of the rooms a relief map of the trail followed by the explorers from their outfitting place, St. Louis, is also of interest to the historical student.

This completes my survey, necessarily a brief one, of the sixteen states whose buildings, or the contents thereof, are specially designed to convey lessons of the past, to keep before us the names and the achievements of some of America's noblest sons. But the list of historical buildings of this same class is not yet complete. Close by Fort Clatsop is Grant's log cabin, built by his own hands on the old Ridge Road, nine miles southwest of St. Louis. This was in the late fall of 1854, when the retired soldier, a man in early middle life, discouraged by failure, became in literal truth a hewer of wood and a drawer of water. For three years he lived in this cabin with his wife and children, cutting cord wood and hauling it to St. Louis for sale, with a team of horses. Even this gallant effort of an indomitable spirit failed, for Grant had to abandon the cabin. He moved into St. Louis, and tried his hand in the real estate business, still without success. Eventually he was glad to accept a billet as a clerk to his father and brothers in their leather store at Galena, Illinois, at a salary of $50 per month. Yet, one year after this last change, after the man had been pronounced a failure by family and friends, he had leaped to fame. "Lord of the far-flung battle line," controlling the movements of a million men, Grant had at last found his opportunity. And here at the World's Fair, in eloquent testimony to his earlier struggles, stand the rough hewn logs of oak and elm which he had raised as a shelter for his little family. Our picture shows the soldier son of the great soldier, General Fred Dent Grant, bronzed from service in the Philippines, on the occasion of the World's Fair dedication in 1903, viewing the old log hut, in which during childhood days he had seen his father bowed with manual toil, and, one of the family group at nightfall, around the big fireplace with its blazing logs, had listened to stories of the Mexican War. "Hard-scrabble," as the cabin was well named, now transported to Forest Park fifty years after its building, is to remain there permanently as a memorial of a great man and an object lesson that will teach the virtue of perseverance to many generations of young Americans.

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In the Palace of Agriculture is another log cabin associated with the name of another distinguished President—Theodore Roosevelt. This structure has been brought from the plains of North Dakota. It was Roosevelt's home during the years 1883-86, when, seeking the open prairies in search of health, he settled down as a cattle rancher on the banks of the Little Missouri River, eight miles south of Medora, in the heart of a romantic region then abounding with big game. Within the cabin are shown some of his old possessions: well-worn overalls, for example, now humorously labeled "Roosevelt's Sunday trousers," the favorite rocker in which he wrote "Hunting Trips of a Ranchman," and the huge seat hewn out of a log in which he rested outside after many a hard day's work and watched the sun go down. One of the logs that form the hut shows a Maltese Cross, Roosevelt's particular cattle brand, fashioned with cartridge shells driven into the wood with his own hand. Since coming to St. Louis, the cabin has acquired further interesting associations, for the silver plate on the door was nailed there by the President's daughter, and her initials in brass-headed nails stud one of the logs not far from the cross made by her father twenty years before, when no one dreamed that he would be the President of his country.

Even now the subject of the Exposition as a historical museum is far from being exhausted, be it only from the single viewpoint of American history. The student must make the tour of the United States building, where a vast amount of material is at his disposal. The exhibits are but illustrative samples drawn from the national storehouses in every department of administration. But even this very limitation adds to their value, for the selection has been made by experts, and a fairly comprehensive study of the nation's records is thus rendered possible. In the remaining space at my disposal I can but indicate in barest outline the numberless things of absorbing interest here to be seen.

THE OREGON BUILDING
A reproduction of Fort Clatsop in which Lewis and Clark passed the winter of 1805-06

The Department of State tells the complete story of the nation's existence. We may start with the Declaration of Independence (reproduced in facsimile by photographic process, as are all the other priceless documents), examine Jefferson's rough draft with the interlineations by Franklin and Adams, and look upon the portraits of all the famous men who had part in the signing. Coming to the Louisiana purchase, we see the treaty that ceded the territory to the United States, and the precedent document that turned over the region from Spain to France. The actual desk on which Jefferson wrote the draft is here. Among the other documents of first importance are the letters on the Mon-

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AN ARMY WAGON USED IN THE CIVIL WAR

roe doctrine that passed between Monroe, Jefferson and Madison, and the proclamation by Lincoln emancipating the slaves. Also on view are specimen proclamations signed by each President from Washington to Roosevelt, portraits of every President and Vice-President, together with the members of each cabinet, ceremonial letters from abroad from the days of King Louis onward, and treaties with every country, civilized and semi-civilized, ranging from the nations of Europe to Tripoli and China. Then, amid a wealth of relics displayed in cabinets, we gaze upon the sword of George Washington, the sight of which must cause a thrill in the breast of every lover of his country.

In the Department of Justice is a collection of documents from the legal archives of the nation, illustrating the growth and development of the business of the courts, curious legal proceedings, and cases of national importance. On the walls hang a complete set of etched portraits of the Attorneys-General, together with oil paintings of several of the Chief Justices of the United States Supreme Court.

The Departments of War, the Navy and Agriculture concentrate their attention mainly on things of to-day, but in the first-named section will be found just a few relics of battlefields and campaigns. The Department of the Treasury, with much that is strictly up to date, has many exhibits of a historical kind, notably the first ledgers of the United Colonies, in which the contributions of each state to the cost of carrying on the Revolutionary War are credited. Specimens of every bond, note, certificate and other obligation issued by the United States, of every postal and revenue stamp, of every coin minted since 1793, are also included in the display.

The Department of the Interior has a vast collection of historical documents: original pension certificates from the Revolutionary War onward, commissions signed by King Louis of France to officers serving under Rochambeau in America, papers filed bearing the autograph signatures of such celebrities as Paul Jones and Paul Revere, a declaration signed by General Lafayette regarding a grant to him by Congress of land near New Orleans, bounty land warrants issued to famous citizens for military services, and

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many other records of similar kind. Then, going back further still, we see documents bearing the signatures and the seals of Kings of England, France and Spain, most of them dealing with the Louisiana territory in the early days of its international importance.

The Library of Congress provides us with another display of historical documents on an equally extensive scale. Here we find four specimen pages (photographed, it goes without saying) of the Virginia Company's records, date 1622; the original journal of Baron von Closen during the Revolutionary War, containing autograph orders by Washington, notes on battles, pay sheets, newspaper cuttings, sketches of individuals, paintings of costumes—a veritable treasury of information; the "letter of credence" from Jefferson to the Citizen First Consul of France, introducing James Monroe as the Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States; twelve pages of Monroe's journal, written during the Louisiana negotiations in Paris, and giving details of conversations with Napoleon; a complete collection of Jefferson's portraits; specimens of political broadsides in the early days of the century, couched in language most frank and free, wherein political rivals are spoken of in such terms as "a bloated, pusillanimous scoundrel" or "a fellow both morally and politically corrupt and rotten to the core, than whom a dirtier scoundrel does not breathe"; a suggestive collection of old maps, twenty-five out of the sixty thousand stored in the Library; a collection of the music of the Civil War on both sides; title-pages of famous books in the Library; and many other curious and instructive exhibits.

Then there still remains the Postoffice Department, with a deal of historical matter included in its superb display of twentieth century postal work. We can examine the accounts of the first American postmaster, Benjamin Franklin, kept by his own hand in pounds, shillings, pence and farthings. We may lay alongside each other the first postal guide of 1804, containing forty pages, and the last volume issued by the Department containing over one thousand pages, and by the comparison can measure the progress of facilities for intercommunication during a century. So we may contrast the old Rocky Mountain mail coach standing side by side with the modern railway postoffice, with all its up-to-date equipment. We see the model of the first steam vessel to carry the United States mail across the Atlantic, the old Southerner that plied between Savannah, Georgia, and Liverpool in the early thirties, and read with amused interest that for two years the contract was refused to her because "steam vessels were not so safe or certain as sailing vessels." And once again these are merely hints of the stores of historical material to be found in the display of a single department.

But even yet the value of the World's Fair to the student of history is left untouched in the wider bearings of the theme. We have glanced at it only on the American side. But among the buildings of the foreign nations, the subject meets us at every turn. England, France, Germany and Belgium present us with historical buildings, enriched internally with historical furnishings. Holland reproduces a typical Dutch home of 1601, filled with genuine antiquities, including one of Rembrandt's most famous pictures, "The Nightwatch." Scotland contributes a faithful replica of Burns' cottage at Ayr, stored with genuine Burns' relics and manuscripts; while Ireland shows us, with several of her historic buildings besides, a humble cabin that was the ancestral home of the McKinleys in County Antrim, and from which the great grandfather of our last martyred President was taken and hanged for participation in the rebellion of 1798. In the Irish Industrial Exhibition, too, we have the most complete exposition of Ireland's development, from medieval times onward, ever before made. Then Ceylon must be mentioned as giving us a glimpse of the famous Buddhist "Temple of the Tooth" at Kandy, and India as reproducing a celebrated Mahommedan mosque at Agra, also an equally well-known Hindu shrine at Palitana, carved in teakwood, an exact facsimile of the original down to the most minute detail. Finally, in the Philippine Reservation we have a section of the old wall of Manila and a reproduction of the ancient Cathedral within the walled city, together with a vast collection of historical relics from America's far-away dependency in the eastern seas.

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NEW APPLICATIONS OF ELECTRICITY TO INDUSTRY

BY

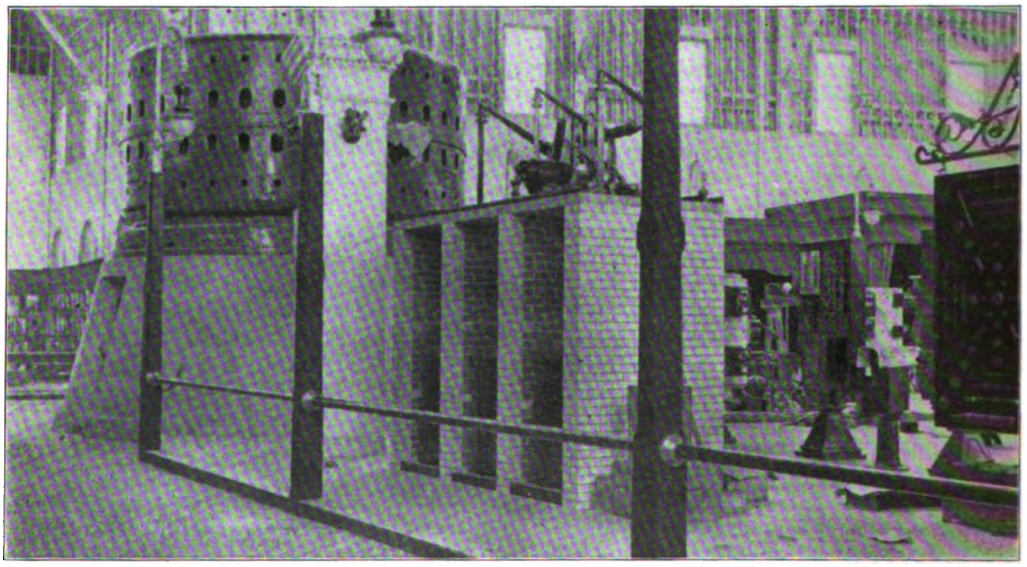
HENRY H. NORRIS

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING, CORNELL UNIVERSITY

THE importance of electricity in modern industrial life is indicated by the amount of space devoted to its application at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. The Palace of Electricity, pentagonal in form, covers over nine acres and cost $415,000. Electrical exhibits, however, are not confined to this building, but may also be found in the Palaces of Transportation, Education and Machinery and about the grounds. The observer of these exhibits is impressed with one important fact, namely, that electricity is now an essential element of all our comfort, not something separate and apart. It has made modern business possible by providing quick transportation, facility of communication, economical distribution of vast amounts of power, and numerous other sources of efficiency and comfort.

Transmission of Intelligence

Various means of transmission through space with and without wires are shown about the buildings and grounds of the World's Fair. The public has here a chance to study in operation a modern system of wireless telegraphy. The De Forest system differs in some details from the others now in use, but the essential features are the same. The De Forest Company has a number of stations on the grounds, one being a very tall steel tower, another a high wooden mast, while others are less pretentious. Surrounding all of the stations are numerous long fine wires known as antennæ. From these wires messages are sent out into space and are received on similar although usually shorter antennæ. As in the Marconi system, the source of the electric waves, millions in number every second, is the dis-



A TEN THOUSAND HORSE-POWER DYNAMO

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charge from a large spark coil. Current is supplied to this coil from a dynamo and the discharge is controlled by a number of large Leyden jars. From one and a half to three or more horse-power are required to operate a transmitting station with a range of two hundred miles.

A great novelty in the transmission of speech is the wireless telephone, two forms of which are on exhibition. In one of these sound is transmitted over a beam of light. The light from an electric searchlight, with a parabolic mirror, is thrown in parallel rays and is received on a similar parabolic mirror. The latter concentrates the light upon a selenium cell which has the property of varying its electrical resistance with the intensity of the light thrown upon it. Variations in the strength of the light are produced at the sending end by variations in the current supplying the arc lamp, these variations being produced by a diaphragm upon which the sound is impressed. It is received at the other end in an ordinary telephone receiver connected in circuit with the selenium cell.

A second form of wireless telephone consists of two coils, one of which is buried in the earth while the other may be carried about. The current sent into the first coil is varied in amount by devices familiar to every telephone user, although in this case the currents are very much larger than those in the ordinary telephone. Fluctuations of the current in the large coil set up electromagnetic impulses in the surrounding space and these affect the movable coil to which the receiver is connected. Neither form of wireless telephony described has as yet made much commercial progress, but it would be foolish to predict that this is not possible in the near future.

Among the novel devices for transmitting symbols is the telautograph, a machine for duplicating handwriting at a distance. Attendants at the World's Fair in Chicago will remember the exhibition of an early form of this machine, the invention of Professor Gray. Since that time radical improvements have been made in the machine and now it is receiving deserved commercial recognition. In this device the operator writes with a stylus to which are attached two arms, each of which makes contact upon an

USING THE WIRELESS TELEPHONE

electrical resistance cylinder which varies the current in a corresponding circuit. As the stylus is moved in different directions it varies the currents in the circuits in a perfectly definite manner. At the receiving end each of these circuits is connected to a coil of wire which operates upon a plunger, drawing it in as the current increases in strength. These plungers are connected to a pen in such a way that the latter is compelled to trace out exactly the original writing. Any reasonable number of receiving stations can be operated from one sending point, and each of these stations receives an autographic duplicate of the original. Herein lies one of its most important advantages in that an order can be sent over a range of twenty miles or more from one point to any number of others, instantly, and in the sender's own handwriting.

The importance of a telephone switchboard is hardly realized by the every-day user of that commercial and household

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THE RADIOPHONE

necessity, the telephone. Numerous operating switchboards can be seen at the fair, where they are arranged to do commercial business and at the same time form an attractive exhibit. Tiny incandescent lamps announce to the operator that a subscriber wants a connection. She inserts a plug into a small tube or "jack" in front of her. This connects the receiver at her ear and her transmitter with the calling subscriber's circuit. Upon finding the number wanted she inserts another plug into the jack connected to the out-going line and by pressing a small lever rings a bell at the second subscriber's end of the line. The most interesting feature of all this is what is called the "supervisory system" used on most modern boards, by which a tiny lamp lights up when either of the talking subscribers restores his receiver to its hook. When both have been restored, as shown by the lamps, both plugs are removed and the line is thus "cleared."

But the human operator is not always required and may in time become a thing of the past. The automatic telephone exchange is already established in many parts of the country and its use is spreading. A working system may be seen in the Palace of Electricity, including both the exchange and a number of commercial subscribers' outfits. At the central exchange each line is supplied with a switch of complicated form which automatically connects that subscriber with any other subscriber in the system. The switch both rotates and moves upward and downward as dictated by the calling subscriber. This subscriber's telephone has upon it a dial with numbers from one to nine. He inserts a finger in a slot opposite the first figure of the desired number, rotating the dial until the finger reaches a stop. The dial is then released and the operation repeated until the desired number has been completed. The switch in the station is following these movements and has connected the calling subscriber with the desired line. The pressing of a button on the caller's telephone rings a bell at the desired subscriber's end and the connection is complete. The hanging of the receivers upon the hooks restores all connections to their original state.

The Delaney system of rapid telegraphy by which one thousand words per minute can be transmitted was described in the columns of THE WORLD TO-DAY some time ago. Mr. Delaney has on exhibition a full working set of instruments for machine telegraphy. The familiar dots and dashes are sent over the line by means of contact fingers which make electrical connections through holes perforated in a strip of paper. The paper is perforated by hand, but is drawn under the contact fingers at a high rate of speed. At the receiving end the impulses of current produce an electrolytic effect upon a chemically prepared strip of paper. There is absolutely no inertia effect in this instrument, so that the only limit in speed is due to the impossibility of producing the chemical action instantly. The effect of the application of an invention of this kind would be to increase vastly the efficiency of our telegraph lines. Its introduction is rendered somewhat slow on account of the large sums of money already invested in existing telegraph systems.

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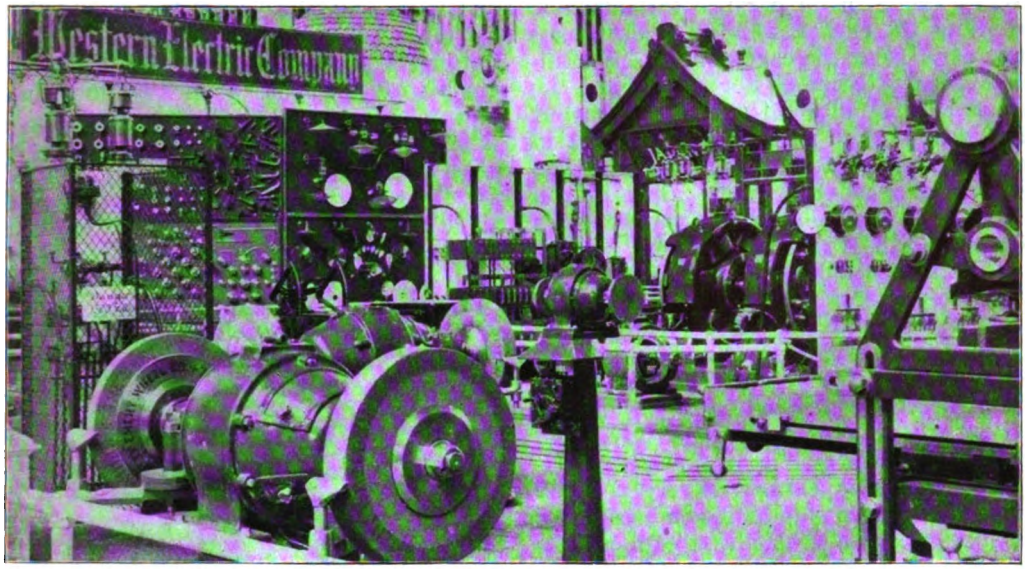

AN ELECTRIC GRINDING MACHINE

Electric Transportation

Electricity has proved its superiority as a source of power for conveying passengers, and it is rapidly invading the domain of the steam engine for this purpose. The electric automobiles glide smoothly over the boulevards while the electric launches ply swiftly upon the surface of the lagoons. In both cases storage batteries of moderate size supply energy for a day's run and they are "charged" at such times as they can be spared from service. These means of transportation are popular and successful for the slow speeds which are required for these classes of service.

Electric motors must also be relied upon for the production of very high speeds. The recent work at Zossen showed that practically unlimited speed is possible for electric cars. Certainly the possible speeds are far in excess of the practicable ones. An illustration of the influence upon the car builders of the demand for high speed is shown by the exhibit of the John Stephenson Car Company in the Transportation building. They show a car body with two six-wheel trucks, designed for a speed of 120 miles per hour. The platforms are enclosed by parabolic ends so that the least possible resistance is offered to the passage of the car through the air. While there is at present no demand for such a high-speed car, the builders evidently anticipate such a demand in the near future.

One of the most promising directions of improvement in high-speed railway construction is the monorail system. This has been given severe tests abroad and it contains many of the elements of success. The weight of the car is carried by a single rail which may be supported near the ground or upon an elevated structure. The car may straddle this rail, as in the system exhibited upon a small scale at the World's Fair, or it may be suspended therefrom, as in the road now in operation in Germany. In either case the side strains due to the rounding of curves at high speeds are provided against, in the first instance by guide rails carried upon the supporting structure, while in the other example mentioned the car swings outward from a vertical position, causing the passengers no discomfort. The limit of speed on these monorail railways is far above present commercial requirements.

The Edison Historical Exhibit

The Edison Illuminating Companies have collected a large number of interesting Edisonia which cover almost the whole range of the inventor's contributions to modern electrical progress. An electric car of the date 1880 shows one of the earliest applications of the electric motor.

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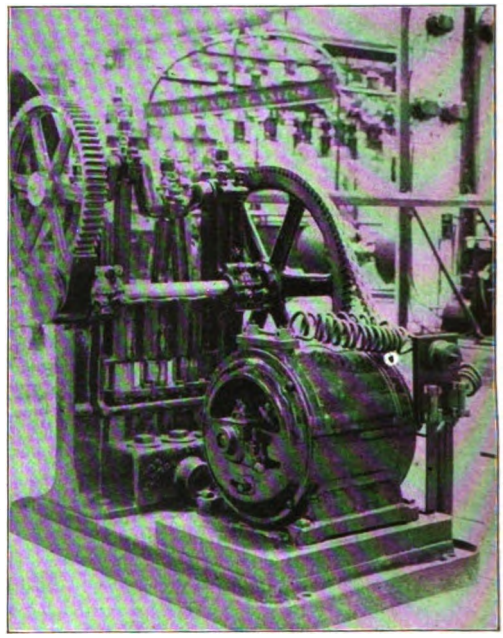
While crude in appearance this machine contains the elements of the modern electric car. Near the car is one of Mr. Edison's early dynamos for producing the electric light; of great bulk for its output but remarkably successful in operation considering the state of the art at the time it was designed and built. The Edison "Jumbo" dynamo which caused such wonder at the Franklin Institute Electrical Exhibition just twenty years ago, is here, resplendent in a new coat of paint. This machine and others like it were in commercial service in New York City until within a few years. These machines were directly connected to steam engines without belting or gearing of any kind, hence their usual name of "engine-dynamos." Their appearance is very peculiar from the modern standpoint on account of the presence of a double layer of field coils on the upper side, presumably to make up for the magnetic leakage which occurs in the iron base-plate.

The most wonderful of all the Edisonia is the collection of modern and historic incandescent lamps. It is difficult at this date to appreciate the amount of labor expended by the great inventor and his associates in the effort to secure a satisfactory material for the filaments of his lamps. Metals and fibers of all kinds were successively used, until finally the present simple carbonized cellulose filament was invented. In the exhibit, two large cases contain examples of lamp construction at all periods and for all classes of service. It is profitable after visiting this exhibit to examine that of the United States Incandescent Lamp Company, which has a fully equipped factory in operation, with every detail from the "squirting" of the cellulose filament to the measuring of the candle-power of the lamp.

Other Electrical Devices

Rapid advances must be made in the method of generating electric power in order that current may be supplied for the many new applications as well as for the increased demand on the part of established industries. The General Electric Company illustrates this feature by means of a full-sized model of one of the ten thousand horse-power generators which will be used on the Canadian side at Niagara Falls. It will be remembered by those readers who attended the Centennial Exposition of 1876 that a Corliss engine of not more than two thousand horse-power attracted the greatest attention. At the St. Louis Exposition the engines in the Palace of Machinery, one of five thousand horse-power and several not much smaller, which are used for driving the great electric generators, are considered of ordinary interest. Few visitors pause to give more than a passing glance at these modern marvels of mechanical and electrical ingenuity. As a matter of fact, there are gathered together on the grounds an unprecedented collection of these machines, considering the temporary nature of the plant.



A MOTOR-DRIVEN TRIPLEX PUMP

Smaller in size, but as important in their way, are the little electric motors which are seen by the thousands, each doing its quota of work quietly but efficiently. These motors are driving pumps, lathes, fans, grinding machines, elevators, in short, everything which needs to be driven by mechanical power. It has come to be almost a matter of course that a machine shall be driven by an electric motor, which, after all, is the most important of all of the modern industrial applications of electricity.

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TWO ITINERARIES FOR VISITORS AT THE WORLD'S FAIR

I.—FOR A TWO DAYS' VISIT

IN two days the visitor can only hope to get a general impression of the fair. The following itinerary assumes that his object is to see intelligently as much as possible, without closely studying any one subject or department. If there be the wish to specialize, this must be done by devoting more time to one building than to the others, or by omitting items in the program. The grounds may be entered at 8 A.M., but the Palaces are not open to the public until 9.

First Day

From downtown take Olive Street tram car to Lindell, or main, entrance. After passing within the gates, fix clearly in mind the position of the two termini of the Intramural Railway, to left and right of the central plaza.

8—9 A.M.

Walk up the Plaza of St. Louis, surveying the main picture—Louisiana Monument, Grand Basin, Art Hill with Festival Hall and the Colonnade of States, also the German Castle of Charlottenburg to the left. Observe the position of four main palaces in relation to the plaza; to right, Varied Industries and Electricity, to left, Manufactures and Education.

Return toward the Lindell entrance, and take the Intramural Railway on the side of the Palace of Manufactures. Have a small folding map ready, and by its aid every building passed on the trip can be readily identified. After making this almost complete circuit the visitor has gained at the start a clear idea of the extent and the general plan of the fair.

9—NOON.

Descend from the railway at Station No. 3, being two stations before the terminus. Enter the

PALACE OF TRANSPORTATION from the further, or southwest, corner. Traverse the building three times from end to end, first along the right side, then back down the center, and finally along the left side. Note specially, Japan, with the finest relief map in the Exposition; the evolution of transportation as shown by all the beasts of burden utilized by man; the evolution of the railway locomotive and of the tramway car; the Pullman model train, and automobiles.

PALACE OF VARIED INDUSTRIES: Gridiron this building from side to side. Everything is of interest. Notable exhibits are Japan's art work, British furniture and pottery, Dutch pottery, and the model German home, perhaps in its way the most beautiful corner in the Exposition palaces.

PALACE OF MANUFACTURES: Again a zig-zag course from side to side will be found best here. The Italian sculpture is superb. Japan makes a splendid showing; note that many of her manufactures are almost identical with American and European goods. About the middle of the building, left hand side, is the great display of French costumes and millinery.

PALACE OF LIBERAL ARTS: As in the case of Transportation, traverse this building from end to end three times. At every point things of interest will be encountered. China's collective exhibit occupies one corner of the building.

NOON—12:30 P.M.

Lunch. If this has not been brought, there are restaurants within easy access.

12:30—2:30 P.M.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING: The most magnificent collection of national exhibits ever assembled under one roof. Enter by the main doorway, and turn to the left. Make a loop of this half of the building by keeping continuously to the left. Watch the mint in operation. In the Department of the Interior, do not miss the radium exhibits. The Patent Office shows latest inventions. The Postoffice display is of absorbing interest. The Smithsonian Institution brings you back opposite the main entrance. Zig-zag the other half of the building, taking War first, then the Navy, next the Bureaus of Animal and Plant Industry, then the Department of Entomology (the demonstration of insect pests is of fascinating interest), and finally the Department of State at the end of the building. Leaving by this doorway, the visitor crosses over to the

GOVERNMENT FISHERIES EXHIBIT, in an outside pavilion, where, among many other things, fish hatching may be seen.

2:30—3 P.M.

KENTUCKY BUILDING: Take this, in passing, as a fair specimen of the luxuriously equipped clubhouses of the states. See the room in which the song "My Old Kentucky Home" was written. Proceed to the

GERMAN BUILDING, and inspect the treasures lent by the Emperor, upstairs.

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3—4 P.M.

PALACE OF FINE ARTS: An hour will permit at least a glance at the great collections of contemporary paintings and sculpture. The American galleries occupy the main or central building.

4—5 P.M.

JERUSALEM: A guide, for a small charge, conducts visitors in small parties to all points of interest.

5—6 P.M.

JAPANESE NATIONAL PAVILIONS: All beautiful and interesting.

CALIFORNIA STATE BUILDING: Old Mission, with mission furniture.

ILLINOIS STATE BUILDING: Splendid collection of Lincoln relics.

LINCOLN MUSEUM: Containing Lincoln's funeral car.

6—7:30 P.M.

Dinner and rest. Several restaurants are near at hand.

7:30—9 P.M.

ILLUMINATIONS AND ILLUMINATED CASCADES: Watch these from the Plaza of St. Louis, in front of the Grand Basin.

9—11:30 P.M.

THE PIKE : Choose shows according to taste.

Second Day

From downtown take Market Street tramcar to State buildings entrance.

8—9 A.M.

Survey the exteriors of the State buildings, the outside aviary, and the United States big guns, gradually making toward the beautiful sunken gardens between the Palaces of Liberal Arts and Mines.

9 A.M.—NOON.

PALACE OF MINES: Enter by the central doorway next the United States Government building. See the Pennsylvania coal mining and coal sorting machinery at work, then gridiron the building from side to side. The superb pavilion of polished onyx from Colorado should not be missed. Move along to the

PALACE OF EDUCATION: Enter from the right-hand, or northeast, corner. Visit the home state exhibit, then inspect two or three of the other state displays. The university exhibits occupy the center of the building. On the further side is the sociological section, where there are classes for teaching the blind, and the deaf and dumb. Among many exhibits of fascinating interest are model tenements contrasted with the old, insanitary structures, a model nursery, model prison cells, and a demonstration of the beneficent work being accomplished by juvenile courts in Chicago and other large cities.

PALACE OF ELECTRICITY: Enter by the northeast corner, where you may begin by listening to an interesting talk on lightning, accompanied by experiments, and thereby equipping yourself with a good deal of information that will help in subsequent observations. Proceed to the Marconi pavilion and get a demonstration of wireless telegraphy. Pass along, still keeping to the right of the building, and examine the telautograph at work. Then turning down the west side of the building, observe the new discovery of wireless telephony, the sound being carried on a beam of light. Watch the process of making incandescent lamps. This brings you to the De Forest pavilion of wireless telegraphy, which system may be compared with that of Marconi. Continuing the round, inspect the new automatic telephone exchange. Coming back again down the center of the building, examine in the British section the monorail system of rapid railway transportation (110 miles an hour), now being installed between Manchester and Liverpool.

PALACE OF MACHINERY: Gridiron this building. Woodworking machinery in operation occupies the southeast corner.

NOON—12-30 P.M.

Lunch. There are several restaurants near at hand.

12:30—2 P.M.

FRENCH PAVILION: Historical tapestries and furniture.

BRITISH PAVILION: Old furniture.

BURNS' COTTAGE: Manuscripts and relics.

CHINESE PAVILION: The interior of an oriental mansion.

QUEEN'S JUBILEE PRESENTS: About the Hall of Congress, in rear of the Administration building.

INDIAN PAVILION: Reproduction of a Mohammedan mosque.

CEYLON PAVILION: Reproduction of a Buddhist temple.

CANADIAN PAVILION: A comfortable clubhouse.

2—5 P.M.

PALACE OF AGRICULTURE:

PALACE OF HORTICULTURE: Enter the Palace of Agriculture by the south doorway, that next to the Ceylon pavilion. Traverse the building from end to end, keeping to the right. Then leave it, and go to the Palace of Horticulture beyond. Gridiron this building. Return to Agriculture, and take the side of the building before left untouched. The model dairy will come under inspection.

FORESTRY, FISH AND GAME: The building devoted to these three allied classes of exhibits is one of the most charming and interesting in the Exposition. The visitor should zig-zag through it from side to side. Leaving by the southwest doorway, he is on the way to the

CAMPS OF THE RED INDIANS. In passing through these, make toward the entrance to the Philippine Reservation.

5—8 P.M.

PHILIPPINE RESERVATION: Dine here and rest. Visit the native villages. Remember also that the exhibition has an industrial side, showing products, resources and imports.

8—10 P.M.

BOER WAR SHOW: Take the intramural railway. Before the performance, inspect the museum of African curiosities.

10—11:30 P.M.

THE PIKE—If not dead tired, and quite ready for home.

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II.—FOR SIX DAYS' VISIT

An itinerary for six days need not be drawn with so much elaboration as one for two days. "The man in a hurry" has to be directed straight to the exhibits of most striking interest within the buildings; the visitor with more time at his command may safely be left to make such discoveries for himself. Furthermore, in planning the more leisurely program, the excellent rule can be followed of apportioning the heavier tasks to the earlier hours, when the mind is fresh and receptive, and allowing a gentle gradation toward mere sight-seeing and amusement as the day wears on.

First Day

Arrive at Lindell, or main, entrance.

8—9 A.M.

Stroll on the Plaza of St. Louis, view the central picture, and make a complete round on the Intramural Railway.

9—NOON.

PALACE OF VARIED INDUSTRIES.
PALACE OF TRANSPORTATION.

NOON—1 P.M.

Lunch and rest.

1—3 P.M.

FOREIGN BUILDINGS (first group): France, Mexico, Siam, Nicaragua, Brazil, Italy, Belgium, China and Cuba.

3—4 P.M.

PALACE OF FORESTRY, FISH AND GAME.

4—8 P.M.

PHILIPPINE EXHIBITION. Dinner. Band music.

8—10 P.M.

Take Intramural Railway, either direction, to Plaza of St. Louis.
GONDOLA TRIP.
ILLUMINATIONS.

10—11 P.M.

THE PIKE.

Second Day

Arrive at Lindell, or main, entrance.

9 A.M.—NOON.

PALACE OF MANUFACTURES.
PALACE OF EDUCATION.
PALACE OF MINES.

NOON—1 P.M.

Lunch and rest.

1—2 P.M.

GERMAN BUILDING.

2—5 P.M.

COLONNADE OF STATES.
FESTIVAL HALL. Organ Recital.
PALACE OF FINE ARTS (first visit).

5—6 P.M.

JERUSALEM.

6—7 P.M.

Dine and rest.

7—11 P.M.

THE PIKE.

Third Day

Arrive at Lindell, or main, entrance.
Take Intramural Railway east to Station 15.

9 A.M.—NOON.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT BUILDING.

NOON—1 P.M.

Lunch and rest.

1—3 P.M.

PALACE OF LIBERAL ARTS.
MODEL CITY.
Ascend tower of the De Forest Wireless Telegraph Company. The bird's-eye view of fair and park is superb.

3—6 P.M.

Take Intramural Railway east to Station 11.
STATE BUILDINGS (first group): Virginia, Tennessee, Idaho, Georgia, California and Illinois.
LINCOLN MUSEUM.
MOROCCO.
JAPANESE NATIONAL PAVILIONS AND GARDENS.

6—7 P.M.

Dine and rest.

7—10 P.M.

SOUTH AFRICAN MUSEUM, and Boer and Kaffir Camps.
BOER WAR SHOW.

Fourth Day

Arrive at Administration entrance.
Take Intramural Railway west to Station 9.

9 A.M.—NOON.

DAIRY BARNS.
PALACE OF HORTICULTURE.
CONSERVATORY.
PALACE OF AGRICULTURE.

NOON—1 P.M.

Lunch and rest.

1—2:30 P.M.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL EXHIBITION in Administration building.
QUEEN'S JUBILEE PRESENTS.

2:30—3:30 P.M.

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT LIFESAVING EXHIBITION.

3:30—6 P.M.

FOREIGN BUILDINGS (second group): Ceylon. Canada and India.
OBSERVATION WHEEL.

6—7 P.M.

Dine and rest.

7—9 P.M.

BAND CONCERT, either on the Plaza of St. Louis or in Machinery Gardens.

9—11 P.M.

THE PIKE.

Fifth Day

Arrive at Lindell, or main, entrance.

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9 A.M.—NOON.

PALACE OF ELECTRICITY.
PALACE OF MACHINERY.

NOON—1 P.M.

Lunch and rest.

1—3 P.M.

FOREIGN BUILDINGS (third group): Great Britain, Burns' Cottage, Sweden, Austria and Argentine Republic.

3—5 P.M.

ALASKA BUILDING.
INDIAN SCHOOL.
OUTSIDE ANTHROPOLOGICAL EXHIBITS: Red Indians, Ainus, Patagonians and African Pygmies.

5—7 P.M.

Take Intramural Railway, either direction, to Plaza of St. Louis.
TYROLEAN ALPS. Dine. Tyrolean Singers.

7—11 P.M.

THE PIKE.

Sixth Day

Arrive at State Buildings entrance.

9 A.M.—NOON.

STATE BUILDINGS (second group): Those on the Plateau of States.
OUTSIDE AVIARY.
UNITED STATES BIG GUNS.
UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT FISHERIES EXHIBITION.

NOON—1 P.M.

Lunch and rest.

1—3 P.M.

MINING GULCH.

3—5 P.M.

PALACE OF FINE ARTS (second visit).

5—7 P.M.

GRANT'S LOG CABIN.
STATE BUILDINGS (third group): Oregon, South Dakota, Texas and Kentucky.

7—11 P.M.

BAND CONCERT on the Plaza of St. Louis or in Machinery Gardens.
GONDOLA TRIP.
Wait until the illuminations go out, allowing this to be the last memory of the Fair.

THE BEGINNINGS OF CIVILIZATION

BY

W. J. McGEE

PRESIDENT AMERICAN ANTHROPOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, CHIEF OF THE DEPARTMENT OF ANTHROPOLOGY

THE least developed types of mankind are the pygmy aborigines of Africa, the Blackfellows of Australia, the Negritos of some of the Philippine Islands, and a few other peoples of related character. They are small in stature, dark in color, weak in vitality, and feeble in intellect; they are prognathous (i. e., the lower part of the face projects) and small-brained, while their bodily proportions and movements approach those of the simians in contrast with those of the higher humans; their language is poor in vocables, clumsy in structure, and crude in phonetic; their arts and industries are simple, their beliefs bizarre, and their law fantastic; and the generations arise and pass, much like those of the beasts, each exerting little influence on the next or on neighbors, as mere creatures of environment.

Such are the peoples representing the earliest known stage of human advancement; such, too (within limits not now to be discussed), must have been the forbears of the more advanced peoples who have gradually risen to the rank of conquerors of nature and creators of environment; and no exposition of mankind would be complete without the presence of some of the primitive folk. So an expedition was sent into the interior of Africa in charge of Rev. S. P. Verner, and despite difficulties and hardships such as explorers seldom survive, he brought out the first group of Batwa Pygmies that ever left their native ranges in the Dark Continent. With these are representatives of neighboring tribes, chiefly of small stature, including the Baluba, the Batatele, and the Badinga cannibals, together with "Prince" Latuna, heir of "King" Ndombe, the head of the Bakuba (or Batubat) tribe and paramount chieftain in the Belgian Congo territory. When the party finally landed at New Orleans, Mr. Verner was carried ashore unconscious on a stretcher; but the natives with their cages of domesticated monkeys and parrots reached the Exposition grounds in fair condition.

The pygmies represent one of the least

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known types of mankind in both physical and cultural development, and their presence affords a unique opportunity for scientific students no less than for casual sightseers. There are five distinct languages in the group. The Badinga cannibal, Atobang, whose pantomime reveals the artificially sharpened teeth forming the insignia of his tribe, neither speaks nor understands any other tongue than his own. Happily, the Exposition is enriched by other pygmies, notably the Negrito and Igorot groups of the Philippine exhibit, the most admirable ethnologic display ever made.

From the assemblage much concerning primal humanity is to be learned. The germ of industries is to be sought, and the dawn of artistic and dramatic ideas is to be discovered in the crude devices and inchoate melody and infantile ceremonies; the beginnings of socialry, or law in its broad sense, are to be found; the Morning Star of faith is to be caught through the clouds of unreasoning dread of the uncanny by which all these primitives are beset. Among the little peoples, including the Moro head hunters, may be studied, too, those mental conditions attending the sublimest, or most horrid, acts of faith, culminating in cannibalism and human sacrifice, together with other primitive practices so far removed from lines of modern thought as to deter most men from taking them up. Among the same groups may be studied also the germinal notions of mankind respecting such fundamental institutions as marriage and the family, indeed, the very roots of the great genealogic tree of humanity are here revealed.

Another expedition was that of Professor Frederick Starr to the Island of Hokkaido, whence he brought the group of Ainu or "Hairy Men," the aborigines of Japan. The Ainu are perhaps the least known among the world's peoples; hardly any have ever before left their native land, none ever before visited the western hemisphere. They present an ethnologic puzzle; they are neither brown nor yellow, i. e., neither Malayan nor Mongolian; though their stature is rather small their features, their color, and their abundant beards suggest Caucasian affinities rather than Oriental origin. Yet their handicraft, their elaborate ceremonies, and their curiously developed artistic concepts are not only allied to, but seem to have been precursors of those of China and Japan. They are a simple folk, living in log-framed reed houses (of which a good example was transported to the fair grounds), growing few crops, and subsisting largely on fish and the flesh of the bear, at once their principal game animal and chief tutelary; yet in many respects they are the most refined, gentle, and polite of all the world's peoples assembled on the Exposition grounds. In their various industries they reveal more clearly than any other known people those centripetal or bodyward movements which seem to attest a tree-climbing animal ancestry; in carving their feathery inao (prayer-sticks) the knife is drawn toward the body in such manner as to produce a thinner and more uniform shaving than the centrifugal or outward movement would permit; and in various other ways their daily habits and products are adjusted to a primal structure of body and brain.

BATWA PIGMIES

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They illustrate, too, the acme of a Samsonian cult (of which only meager vestiges remain in our recorded ancestry) centered about the hair and beard as symbols of strength or sanctity. In all their ceremonial observances, whether devotional or merely social, the beard or the hair and often both are stroked, fondled and rearranged with tedious repetition; and the women (who are beardless) have an emblematic beard tattooed about the mouth, which, in certain ceremonies, is stroked and imaginarily rearranged just as is the real beard of the patriarch. The Ainu drama, too, is a revelation; their song is but an accessory to bodily movements of work or play; and in work and play alike the song and the rhythmic movements are more or less fanciful repetitions of idealized powers, the dark powers peopling the invisible world of all early philosophy. The Ainu were chosen largely because they are so little known, partly because of the realization that the ethnic character and marvelous cultural development of the modern Japanese never can be traced without their help; yet, now that they are on the ground, they are found a constant source of interest and attention by sightseers and scientists alike.

AINU. THE ABORIGINES OF JAPAN

Since the return of Magellan's ships from the first Circumnavigation, the Tehuelche Indians of furthest South America have been known as Patagonian giants; yet actual knowledge of them has been practically limited to the observations and reports of rare visitors. Partly because of romantic interest investing them for nearly four centuries, an expedition was organized to bring a party of these sturdy natives to join the other peoples of the world at St. Louis. They are, indeed, of heroic stature; not so tall as selected specimens from some other tribes, yet uniformly large, well developed and robust. They occupy a toldo, or many-poled shelter tent, of guanaco skin; and when the weather favors they wear mantles of beautifully dressed skins of the same animal or of the rhea. The men are hunters; the principal implement of both chase and war being the bolas, i. e., three stones attached to rawhide cords, which are thrown to astonishing distances for the purpose of both crippling and entangling the quarry or enemy. Since the arrival of the Spaniard they have become adepts in handling horses, and live in an association with these animals much like that between the Arab and his steed. They have even developed an equine cult

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in which the horse is a tutelary or zooic deity dominating their primitive pantheon, much as the belief of our own plains Indians was centered about the buffalo. The Patagonians on the grounds illustrate also that early stage in social development in which mother-descent prevails, and in which the elder-woman of the group is the vicar of the powers, the priestess and seeress as well as the giver of material sustenance.

Another expedition brought a group of Cocopa Indians from the mouth of Rio Colorado in Baja California. They were chosen partly because they comprise two physical types corresponding to the sexes, the men being among the tallest and most stalwart and the women among the smallest of all the North American natives. They are agricultural, and are growing on the Exposition grounds pre-Columbian corn kept distinct ever since the Discovery, and still cultivated in the pre-Columbian way. They, too, illustrate the Samsonian cult, the men as well as the women glorying in their hair as a token of invincible superiority. At the same time, they are dominated by a system of belief curiously connected with their native range, over which they migrate periodically from fertile river bottom to arid foothills with the annual freshets of their great river, for the Colorado may be styled the Nile, and the Cocopa Indians the Egyptians, of the western hemisphere.

Other primitive groups were brought from Vancouver Island, where totemic heraldry finds its best development and where the origin of heraldic crests and other devices such as those of our own ancestry may be traced; and from a dozen different localities within the original Louisiana Territory. The Vancouver Indians have a longhouse much like that of the Iroquois in that it is a device for preserving social relations—what may be called an architectural code of law—by fixing the relative positions and thus keeping in mind the relative rank of all the members of the clan or tribe; there is a Pawnee earth lodge, one of the most striking types of aboriginal habitation and at the same time a vestige of modes of life developed in more northerly climes; there are a Wichita grass house, a Kickapoo bark house, and two or three Navajo hogans built of logs and earth; and all

AN ARAPAHO CHIEF

these, with several forms of tipis, are occupied by native groups chosen to represent various steps in that path of human progress beginning with the first fire-making and ending with the marvelous display in the exhibit palaces and the series of world's congresses.

The progress illustrated by the living groups is shown in its earlier stages by the collections in the section of Archeology. One of these is from the tombs and temples of Egypt; another from the ancient cities of Mexico; still another from the imposing mounds of the Ohio Valley; and there are a dozen more, each typical of a region of territory or a stage of cultural development. The special collections are supplemented by one of general character, a synthetic series designed to illustrate by means of typical devices the greater stages in the industrial development of mankind: the conquest of fire, the development of the knife, and the origin of the wheel.

The testimony of the primitive groups as to human progress is extended also by a notable exhibit of contemporary progress in elevating our native tribesmen from the plane of barbaric institutions to that of enlightened citizenship; this exhibit being a model Indian school in which the best results of the experience of a century find expression.

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THE EXPOSITION AS AN OBJECT LESSON TO AMERICAN MUNICIPALITIES

BY

LENORA AUSTIN HAMLIN

THE Exposition City of the Louisiana Purchase includes within its walls an irregular territory one and a fourth by two miles square and a resident population variously estimated at from eight to twelve thousand people. It has its plazas, parks and public buildings, its water, sewer, lighting and transportation systems, its telegraph and telephone—wireless and otherwise—its fire, police and street cleaning departments, its choice residential districts and its foreign quarters, its Bowery and its city hall, commonly known as the Administration building. It has its shops, fashionable restaurants and popular cafés, its theaters, churches, hospital and children's playground, its schools in daily session, its school gardens and its fishpond, its stockyards, markets, model factories, power-houses emitting the usual volume of black smoke, its museums of industry and art, its huts and its beautiful homes. Except for the lake shrewdly provided for the Filipino children to dive in for pennies and the panorama water in "Under the Sea" it has no public bath and Mr. Carnegie has not yet presented it with a library. In compensation for these omissions the national government has set up extensive works within the city, including a life-saving station, situated on an exceedingly dangerous body of water varying in depth from four to twelve feet.

Almost every foreign country has established an official residence in the Louisiana Purchase capital for the use of its accredited representatives and in it the chief official keeps his state and maintains diplomatic relations with all the nations of the earth, including the Board of Lady Managers. The government of the city is autocratic, being modeled after the theory advocated by the National Municipal League and other well-known reformers, of centering the responsibility in the chief executive. It is vested in an executive officer clothed with imperial powers and a cabinet composed of the heads of the several departments of the public business who do his bidding.

In one respect, at least, the city shows its loyal Americanism; it is heavily in debt. The national government, being the chief creditor, has established a species of protectorate over the city and by virtue of a liberal display of authority at critical moments and the maintenance of a reserved and dignified state on the part of the executive body known as the National Commission, has succeeded in establishing with this twentieth-century feudal city a relation akin to that which exists between England and Egypt or France and Abyssinia.

The municipal revenue is derived from a poll tax levied at the city gates, a gross earnings tax on all public service franchises and on all merchandise sold within the city limits; from licenses to theatrical, vaudeville and other places of amusement; from licenses to restaurants, cafés, cigar and lemonade stands, to the milkman, the laundryman, the iceman, the garbageman, the plumber, the official printer, the wheeled chair, jinricksha and automobile companies, the smoked glasses capitalist and the man who owns the chair on which one sits while the band plays the "Star Spangled Banner" and the moon rises over the lagoons.

The City of the Exposition will go down to history as the paradise of union labor. Everything is unionized except the "Pike," the force in the Landscape Department which works all hours and desecrates the Sabbath, and the Indian Band. The union laborer, although he does not

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figure much at dedications and has not had his picture taken as often as President Francis, has been from the first the real dictator of the fair, the only power in the heavens above or the waters under the earth who could make Isaac Taylor afraid. With all this up-to-dateness it is reasonable to assume that the City of the Exposition is fairly replete with object lessons to American municipalities.

A DRINKING FOUNTAIN ERECTED BY THE W. C. T. U.

It may be conceded at the outset that no word of import to municipal art has been spoken in St. Louis with the degree of finality which marked its utterance in the Court of Honor in Chicago; but as there is one glory of the moon and another glory of the stars, so one exposition may differ from another in beauty and the lessons it is designed to teach be yet not wholly lost.

The St. Louis Fair is big and unfinished and exasperating and a joy forever, all in one, like a splendid boy just coming into manhood who has not yet forgotten his childish pranks. Its main picture is rich, imposing, in some moods bewitching, but it is confused in detail and leaves in the mind no fixed impression. Much of the detail, however, is exceedingly good. Much of the planting is in excellent taste and in both the massing of the foliage about the bridges and buildings and in its formal garden treatment it is worthy of careful study. It furnishes an object lesson in the marriage of the architecture to the soil which few will see and not profit by. The buildings, many of them designed by our best men, are dignified and appropriate. Much of the sculpture is good and well placed. The value of a well-designed bridge as a feature of the landscape is satisfactorily enforced. When

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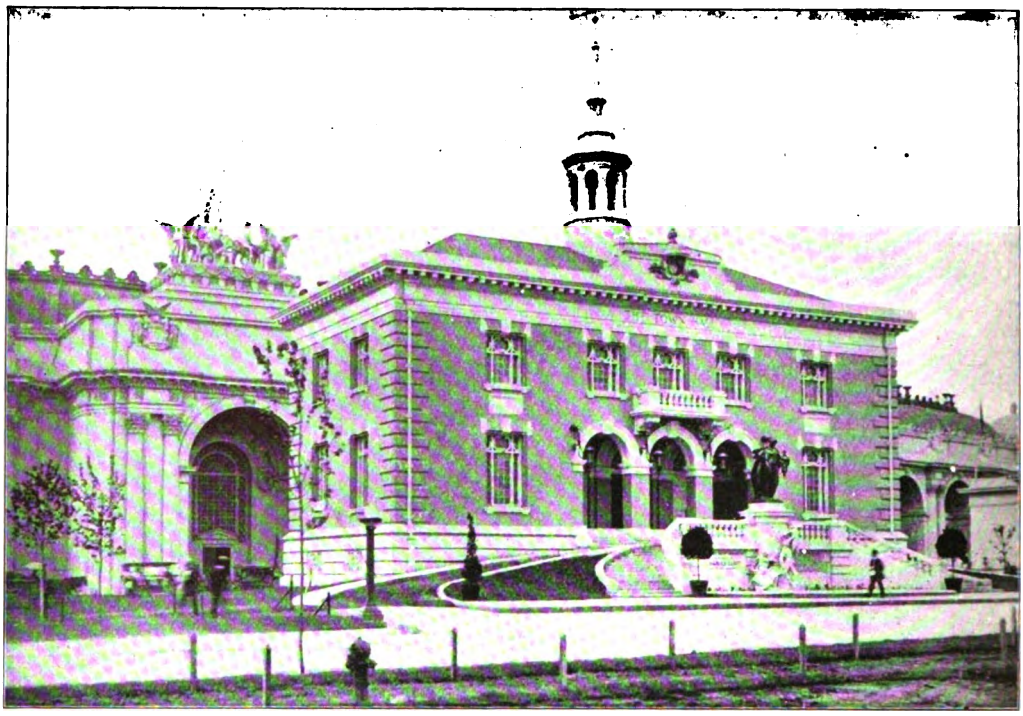

THE TOWN HALL OF THE MODEL CITY

the limitations are considered to which the management was obliged to adapt itself in the treatment of its water problem, the most captious critic can but admit that the best was done with it which could be done.

Nevertheless one is vexed on coming unexpectedly on what promises to be a most attractive view of the picturesque Mines and Metallurgy building, framed in a wealth of green over a glint of water spanned by a stone arch bridge, to find his picture spoiled by the introduction into the composition of a small and impertinent structure which proves on close acquaintance to belong to the "Department of Construction." One's temper is not improved on laboriously climbing the height west of the Terrace of States, for no other purpose than the view, to find the Ferris Wheel thrusting its unwelcome circle into a dozen otherwise charming pictures of minaret and tower and swelling dome softly silhouetted against a sapphire sky. And one is positively aggrieved when, at the end of one of the most important vistas of the fair—that looking directly from the Cascades down the Plaza of St. Louis—he finds his eye saluted by a huge sign, done in letters twelve feet high, nailed to a mountain peak, whose legend invites the attention to a popular pleasure resort nestling in a valley at the mountain's other side.

Curiously enough, this pleasure resort, whose flaming sign so offends the eye from without, furnishes from within no mean object lesson to American civic life. How many "Old Viennas" and "Old Nurembergs" and "Tyrolean Alps" and visits to foreign parts will it take, think you, to convert the American people to the altogether delightful social practice of eating out of doors? And what American town will be the first to set aside in one of its parks an attractive spot, equip it for an outdoor café and so run it that men and women and families shall find it a pleasant and decent place in which to meet and eat a meal together? Without doubt a golden harvest awaits the enterprising park commission which will undertake such an experiment and give to it the attention necessary to the success of a private venture of the kind.

The model street—the "muddled street" in the parlance of its inhabitants during the primeval chaos of the early

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THE MUNICIPAL MUSEUM

days of the Exposition—shorn of many of its promised model features though it be, has not a whit abated the conscious rectitude of its purpose, namely, that of furnishing an object lesson in modern city building. Despoiled of its model plan, its model plaza alternately a desert and a lake, its model buildings with two exceptions unbuilt or changed from their original design, its sacred model limits invaded by unmodel restaurants and places of barter and exchange, it yet remains, by the testimony of the increasing numbers who visit and revisit it and patiently grapple with its geography, one of the most interesting and suggestive exhibits on the grounds.

The Model City, as originally devised, showed a scheme of buildings of harmonious architectural design grouped about an open square, the whole adapted to a town of about ten thousand inhabitants. It included a town hall, a museum, a public library, railway station, school building, each a model of its kind, and such other structures appropriate to civic use as the several towns participating might desire to erect. The plan also provided for a park with an exhibit of park shelters, fountains, seats, etc., and for a children's playground. Up to the present time—for, in the clever language of its president, the "Exposition is like life, always changing; it is the dead thing which is finished"—up to the moment of the present writing, to be quite explicit and safe, the town hall has been built and the museum, both as originally designed by the architect, Mr. Albert Kelsey, of Philadelphia, who was also the originator of the model city idea. Creditable buildings have been erected in the street by the City of New York, San Francisco and Kansas City. The children's playground, [illegible] the enterprise of Mrs. [illegible] Ashton Hirshfield [illegible] New York and the generosity of Mr. Joseph Lee, of Boston, is fully equipped and in operation and furnishes not only a unique exhibit but serves the convenient purpose of a day nursery for children whose mothers would otherwise be prevented from visiting the Exposition for lack of facilities for caring for them in their absence from home. The playground also provides a safe haven to which are brought all the lost and strayed little ones of the great strange fair.

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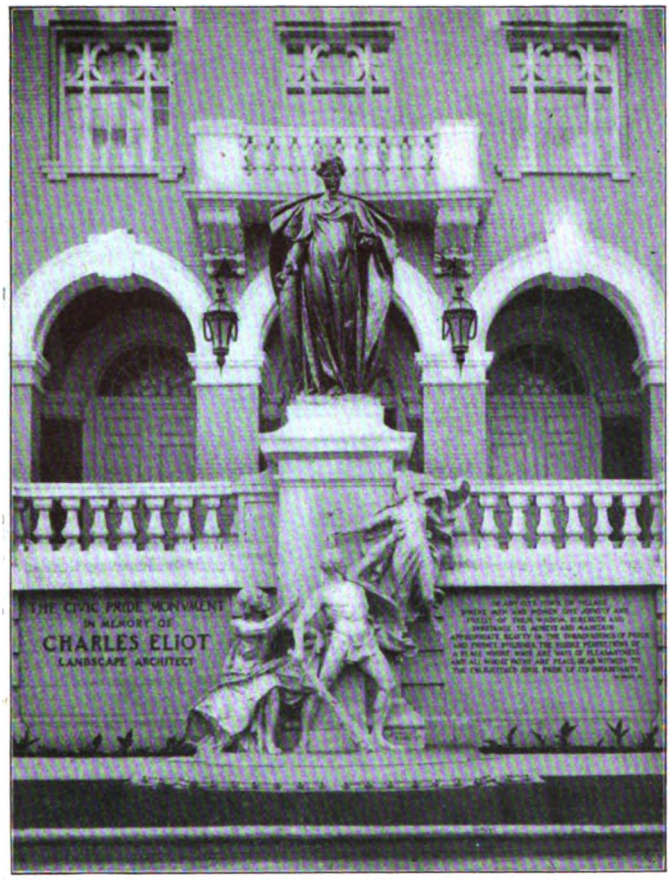

THE CIVIC PRIDE MONUMENT
Dedicated to the memory of Charles Eliot

The emergency hospital, erected at one terminus of the street, may very properly be included in the enumeration of its "model" features. Before the town hall, and an integral part of its design, is a fountain basin and above it stands Massey Rhind's beautiful sculptured group, the Civic Pride Monument, appropriately dedicated to the memory of that chief of civic patriots, the late Charles Eliot, of Boston.

At either entrance to the short street, Germany has erected, as a part of her outdoor exhibit, a combination advertising kiosk, electric light fixture and clock in bronze, and some half-opened packing-boxes disclose tempting glimpses of fountains, street lamps and other outdoor fixtures of attractive and unusual design. An interesting series of exhibits in road-making is in process of installation. With these features and other similar ones to follow, with the street paved, parked, planted and lighted as it now is, with the management giving signs of an intention to seed the "square," with the flags flying and the fountains playing, the model street is at length coming into its own in spite of a train of vicissitudes which would have wiped from the map a less dauntless community.

In the town hall is installed Boston's municipal exhibit, an interesting collection of charts, maps and photographs illustrating her city and metropolitan park systems, the metropolitan water and sewage systems, the bathing beaches, children's playgrounds, public baths and other municipal enterprises. The Fairmount Art and Park Association, of Philadelphia, has an exhibit in the building, and designs for the improvement of the cities of Providence, Rhode Island, and Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, are contributed by Manning Brothers, landscape architects, of Boston. A series of photographs illustrating the sanitary work of Cairo, Egypt, is here shown.

The Twin City Museum, erected jointly by St. Paul and Minneapolis, houses the exhibit from those two cities, and within it each makes a fairly complete showing of her entire civic administration, arranged to a harmonious scheme. Minneapolis shows a model of St. Anthony Falls and her famous milling district, and a model of the buildings and campus of the State University located within her borders. St. Paul shows a model of the new Minnesota State Capitol, now complete, and a plan for obtaining suitable approaches to the building by the reconstruction of the part of the city in which it is situated through what virtually amounts to an extension of the park system. The design is submitted by Cass

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Gilbert, the architect. A model of the St. Paul Free Public Baths and Playgrounds, established on an island in the Mississippi River, through the enterprise and public spirit of the city's Commissioner of Health, is here to be seen, together with an exhibit from the same department, of its methods of combating the smoke nuisance. A series of charts sets forth other organizations of each city and shows the functions and expenditures of each department of the municipal government, analyzes the character of the population and presents in terse form the chief points in their history. In another series the two cities show their combined population and industries and serve notice to the world that this joint metropolis of the Northwest, united in interests, divided only in name, stands eighth in rank among the cities of the country; while a large perspective map of the two cities illustrating their joint park systems ranks them among the first in the appreciation of beauty as a civic asset.

The city of New York occupies, with its municipal exhibit, a commodious two-story structure far too small to satisfy the curiosity of the inquiring inland resident as to the methods by which the metropolis of America conducts its domestic affairs. Notwithstanding the fact that New York's departments of Education, Charities and Corrections and Tenement House reform exhibit in the Palace of Education and Social Economy, both for lack of space and in order to be in line for awards in their several classifications, the municipal building is taxed to its utmost capacity with models and maps and charts and photographs of great interest and value; models of the new subway, of garbage incinerators and dump scows, of the Appellate Courthouse and the new Public Library, new City Prison, new Bellevue Hospital, Williamsburgh Bridge and the memorial to Soldiers and Sailors on Riverside Drive; full-size exhibits of street-cleaning equipment; a complete and comprehensive exhibit of her new waterworks; a large map showing the five boroughs with their parks; drawings of playgrounds and school buildings and electroliers and recreation piers, and with all this many, many phases of her public works are quite untouched.

Neither San Francisco nor Kansas City, commendable as some of their exhibits are, have begun to mine the rich ore of their civic experience and this is the more to be regretted because both cities have made remarkable municipal progress in recent years, the record of which in graphic form would be of much comparative value to the public.

It must not be supposed, however, that the catalogue of the section of Municipal Improvement exhausts the list of municipal material to be found at the fair if one have the disposition and the patience to dig for it. The Social Economy section is full of it, catalogued under every possible head. Great Britain has hers tucked away in the Manufactures building, and Germany, splendid Germany, makes the most remarkable exhibit of municipal works ever brought together in America in her section in the Palace of Liberal Arts. In everything to the least which Germany has done, it is plain some one has cared. In spite of the tariff some one has thought it worth while. After all due credit is given to the capable officials who have so excellently discharged their trust, one can but ask the question, Was it the Emperor?

The original "Model City" idea assumed that all this varied mass of material, domestic and foreign, would be installed in one group where it could be studied together. Scattered as it is, its comparative value is largely sacrificed. It will be a great shame if the opportunity is not given to the American people to see it so assembled, together with such material from American cities not here represented, as is easily available, before that which is foreign is returned to the countries from which it comes. Better still, would it be if such of the foreign material as is of permanent educational value to Americans could be purchased as a nucleus for a municipal museum in one of the larger cities. One had almost said in Washington City, until it is remembered that the government has not even sent a photograph of the wonderful plans and models for the improvement of the national capital to this fair. Indeed, except for the Police Department—and that exhibit is due to the private initiative of her superintendent of police — Washington City and the District of Columbia make no exhibit whatever at the St. Louis Exposition. Why?

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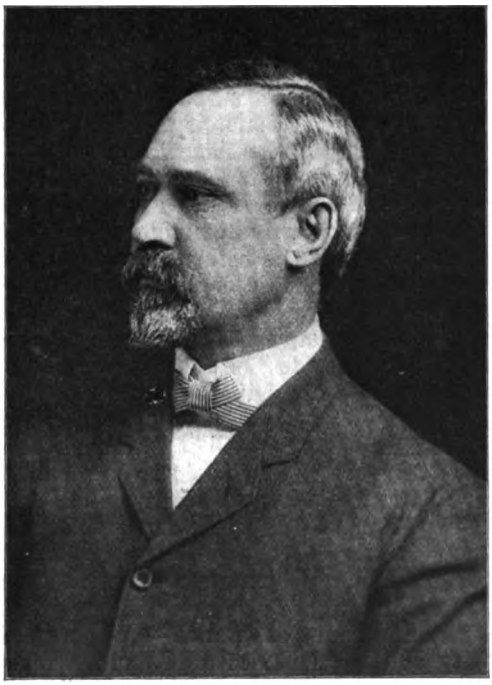
MEN AND WOMEN OF THE MONTH

Charles W. Raymond

Chief Justice United States Court of Appeals for the Indian Territory

WHEN General John A. Logan was elected to the United States Senate in 1885, after a bitter contest, there was great rejoicing among the victors. The Illinois Secretary of State, an ardent Logan man, was so elated that he telegraphed to a young law student and aspiring politician, Charles W. Raymond, who lived in the Secretary's town of Onarga: "Paint my house red!" To the amazement of the Secretary on arriving home the next day he found his beautiful white house with green shutters had been changed to a brilliant red. But young Raymond, when called to account, merely replied: "Don't give orders to me unless you want things done."

This same young man has been made Chief Justice of the United States Court of Appeals for the Indian Territory, after winning a greater reputation as a "man who does things" than any other jurist in the Southwest. He is the youngest member of the federal bench of Indian Territory and presides over one of the most important courts in the Southwest. He was appointed to the federal bench in 1901. In one year he disposed in his district of 1,206 criminal cases and 609 civil cases, not including bankruptcy, this being the largest number of cases disposed of by any federal judge in the United States. For the fiscal year ending July 1, 1904, there were found in his district 1,807 indictments, but by systematic effort, singleness of purpose and wonderful energy, he cleared almost the whole docket.



CHARLES W. RAYMOND
Chief Justice U. S. Court of Appeals for Indian Territory

Judge Charles W. Raymond was born in Dubuque, Iowa. He was educated in the public schools of Onarga, Illinois, and in Wabash College, and was admitted to the bar in 1886. Subsequently he was vice-president of the Illinois Bar Association and president of the Republican League of Illinois. He was once offered the position of Civil Service Commissioner by President McKinley, but declined.

Beekman Winthrop

New Governor of Porto Rico

JUDGE BEEKMAN WINTHROP is a young official whose whole public career has been in connection with the administration of the insular dependencies of the United States. His practical experience in colonial administration and the enthusiasm that greeted his recent inauguration at San Juan, Porto Rico, bode well for the governmental affairs of that island. Immediately after graduating from Harvard Law School, Mr. Winthrop was given an official appointment under the Philippine Commission. Subsequently he served as private secretary to Governor Taft until he was made a judge on the Philippine bench. When General Luke Wright became governor there was

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BEEKMAN WINTHROP
Governor of Porto Rico

strong talk of appointing Judge Winthrop to succeed him as a member of the Commission. Judge Winthrop is an intimate friend of President Roosevelt, who entertained him at the White House a year ago.

William Francis Sheehan

David B. Hill's Rival for Democratic Leadership

"I AM frank to confess that I have undergone a general change of opinion as to what pays in politics. Frankness, candor and honesty pay. So long as I live I shall never again be a factionalist in politics. It does not count for advantage in the long run." So speaks William F. Sheehan, the former machine politician of New York, who sprang into prominence at the St. Louis convention after a retirement from politics of nearly ten years. In 1896 Mr. Sheehan was almost the first Democrat to repudiate, by official act, the nomination of William Jennings Bryan, and he emphasized his objection by resigning his place as a member of the national committee.

William F. Sheehan was born in Buffalo, New York, November 6, 1859, in humble circumstances. His parents took care that he attended the public schools and he completed his education in St. Joseph's College, Buffalo. Meanwhile, he earned money by selling newspapers. He was also a ferry-boy. The narrow Buffalo River was populous on either side. Like many other boys, Sheehan owned a small, flat-bottomed boat in which he transported passengers from shore to shore, while he himself, barefooted, red-haired and freckled, stood in the stern and sculled.

As opportunity offered he studied law and was admitted to the bar at the age of twenty-two, beginning his practice in Buffalo. Then he entered politics. He advanced through the ward caucus into state politics, and in 1885 took his seat in the New York Assembly, to which he was elected seven times. He was a power in his county, an intense partisan of the class that scruple at few things to accomplish a party aim. He and other leaders are said to have elected Hill to the United States Senate by manipulating the returns in certain districts.

On the election of Grover Cleveland, Mr. Sheehan joined the Hill machine, which dominated the State of New York

WILLIAM FRANCIS SHEEHAN
A Democratic Leader

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from 1885 until 1892 and has controlled the Democratic party until the present day with the exception of a few brief intervals. In the session of 1891, Mr. Sheehan was speaker of the New York Assembly. The following year he was elected lieutenant-governor on the ticket headed by Flower. At the completion of his term, in 1895, the Hill machine being temporarily overthrown, Mr. Sheehan moved to New York City.

In New York City Mr. Sheehan opened a law office in partnership with Professor Charles A. Collins, formerly of Cornell, who had been legal adviser to Governor Hill and Governor Flower. Mr. Sheehan has become a rich man in the last decade, partly through speculation, but chiefly through his legal practice. His firm is counsel for many railroads and other corporations.

Michael Donnelly

The Leader of the Stock Yards Strike

MICHAEL DONNELLY has suddenly become famous as a leader of sixty thousand strikers in the most serious labor struggle since the coal strike of 1902. As an organizer he has long been known to labor unions, for he is one of the ablest men in the movement. He was born in Belfast, Ireland, thirty-nine years ago. When twelve years old he came with his parents to America and settled in Texas. At twenty-one he went to work as a butcher in Kansas City and since then he has always been active in the building of the union. The first attempts were all failures, and Donnelly, once blacklisted, looked in vain for work in Kansas City, Omaha and East St. Louis.

MICHAEL DONNELLY
Union Organizer

Three years ago he decided that the only hope for unionism lay in organizing Chicago. He went there in March, 1901, was bitterly opposed not only by the packers but by the men themselves, for former unions had been run by mob rule and the strikes had all been failures. The National Union which Donnelly has since then built up with the twenty-two thousand Chicago butchers as a nucleus, is often called the most compact and the best disciplined of all the newer unions. Donnelly sums up his policy of organizing as follows:

"Workers can be organized to conquer like an army. Obedience and discipline are the necessary things. Confidence in commanders and a fight for the right are necessary to success. But thorough organization from top to bottom, from the skilled worker to the poorest laborer, is required. There are two cardinal principles which every striker must always keep in mind: One is to obey orders; the other is to be peaceable." The strike which he has managed is an interesting commentary upon the efficiency of these principles.

Ramon Corral

"A President in Reserve" for Mexico

THE name of Ramon Corral, the first incumbent of the newly created office of vice-president of Mexico, is not familiar to Americans, but in his own country he has long been considered one of the most rising men. President Porfirio Diaz called him a "president in reserve" on selecting Corral for minister of the interior. This hint and various circumstances have led most Mexicans to regard Mr. Corral as the probable successor to President Diaz. Though Porfirio

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RAMON CORRAL
Vice-President of Mexico

Diaz has just been reëlected, at the age of seventy-four, it is unlikely that he will serve out another six-year term. All evidence points to his having taken Corral under his tutelage in order to retire from the onerous duties of the presidency.

Ramon Corral was born in humble circumstances in the city of Alamos, Sonora, January 10, 1854. He began life as a journalist, and made his appearance in the political world as editor of two newspapers in his native city, *El Fantasma* and the *Voz de Alamos*. These publications were bitterly opposed to the administration of General Ignacio Pesqueira, who had held the local government of Sonora for twenty years. When the revolution of August 11, 1875, broke out, with the patriot General Francisco Serna at its head, Mr. Corral joined the insurgents, maintaining with the sword the same principles of reform that he had proclaimed with his pen.

Elected to the legislature and afterward appointed secretary of state of Sonora, Ramon Corral assisted in the elaboration of many of the laws that are still in force in the state, particularly those pertaining to fiscal regulations. In collaboration with the Licentiate Eduardo Castanada, he revised the penal code of the federal district, and after making the necessary modifications to suit local conditions, he advocated its adoption in Sonora.

In the assembly of 1887 Corral was elected vice-governor of Sonora by public vote, and owing to the leave of absence granted to the constitutional governor, he practically wielded the executive power during most of the term. His great work during this period was the establishment in the state of an excellent system of public schools. Retiring from his office in 1891, he acted as secretary of state until 1895, when he was unanimously elected governor of Sonora. During the two terms of his administration he is conceded to have done more for the state than any other individual. Besides launching a multitude of industrial enterprises throughout the state, he established, among numerous other schools, the important College of Sonora. After making himself, by all these services, the pride of his native state, Ramon Corral became governor of the federal district

DAN EMMETT
Author of "Dixie"

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THE LATE JOHN ROGERS
Sculptor of the "Rogers Groups"

of Mexico on December 19, 1900; and on January 16, 1903, he was sworn in as minister of the interior.

Not only has Mr. Corral demonstrated his capacity for government, but has also made himself popular by his rare combination of affability and authority. Moreover, his intimate friendship with Mr. Limantour, the minister of finance, will be a powerful element in the stability of the government.

John Christian Watson

The New Premier of Australia

THE prime minister of the Commonwealth of Australia is only thirty-seven years old, and a compositor by trade. In the British Empire there is no age limit to the eligibility of men for important offices, and Mr. Watson has reached the highest position in the Commonwealth so early by sheer tact as a leader and maker of friends among his own class. He is not a man of scholastic attainments, but he is an omnivorous reader and has a strong fund of general information. As a speaker he is clear, decisive and effective, though no orator. He is never brilliant, but he is thorough and has a remarkable grasp of detail. He was born in Valparaiso, Chile, where his parents were on a visit, but when he was a few months old they returned to New Zealand. There, after attending school a few years, he began his apprenticeship as a compositor, and eventually joined the New Zealand Typographical Union. From early youth he has been a vigorous worker in connection with labor organizations. When nineteen years old he went as a journeyman to Sydney, Australia, and joined the composing force of *The Star*. His leadership was soon recognized and in 1894 he was elected to represent Young before he was well known to the constituency outside of Sydney, and took a leading place among the labor members of Parliament. In 1901 he was returned for Bland, and was soon chosen to lead the Labor party in the federal House. In this position he has wielded a powerful influence, curbing with great tact the extremists of his party and often having more to do with the passing of bills than the prime ministers of the day. A labor premier with a labor cabinet, Mr. Watson occupies an unusual political position.

CAROLINE ABBOT STANLEY
Author of "Order No. 11"

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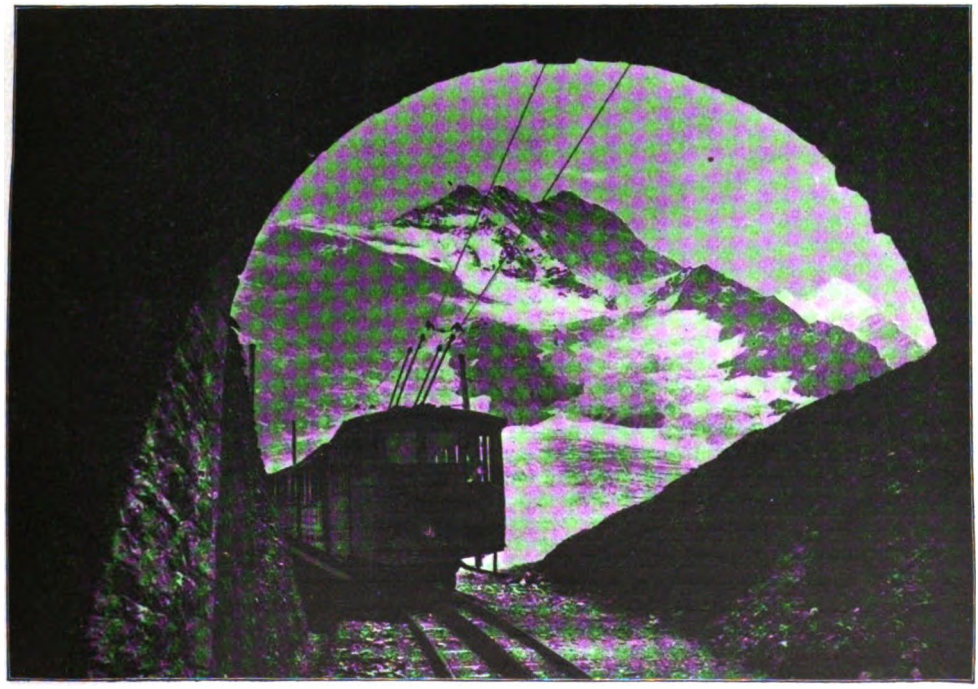
THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

The Wonderful Jungfrau Railway

WHEN you journey over seas and swing round the great sight-seeing circle of Europe, you will arrive, sooner or later, at Interlaken, Switzerland, and the next day, most probably, you will take the famous Wengernalp trip and go up the Jungfrau. In the past, to know the Jungfrau, you would have had to climb it, risking your life in the venture and spending two days and $200 for guides and carriers, but henceforth you can sit comfortably back on a plush seat, and in an hour or two be pushed safely up in an electric car for $8 or $9. Every morning during the summer season the train leaves Interlaken at 9:30 for the Wengernalp excursion, and at noon you reach Scheidegg, up among Alpine crags and glaciers, with half of Switzerland's grandeur spread beneath you. Only one car goes at a time, and it carries but a handful of people. It is built to do most of its traveling almost on end, and besides the usual two rails, there is a heavy center rail, a Riggenbach rack and pinion affair, insuring absolute safety.

The motive power to propel the cars, as also the power used in boring the tunnels, is furnished in an unusual manner. Far below in the valleys have been built two turbine power stations, which are run by the torrents from the snow masses at the foot of the mountains. Thus the very elements, the glaciers and avalanches, that, in the past, have kept people from reaching the Jungfrau's summit, now provide the means of getting there. It is also interesting to note that on warm and pleasant days, when the Jungfrau travel is the heaviest, more snow melts on the slopes and gives more power to carry the traffic.



THE JUNGFRAU TUNNEL

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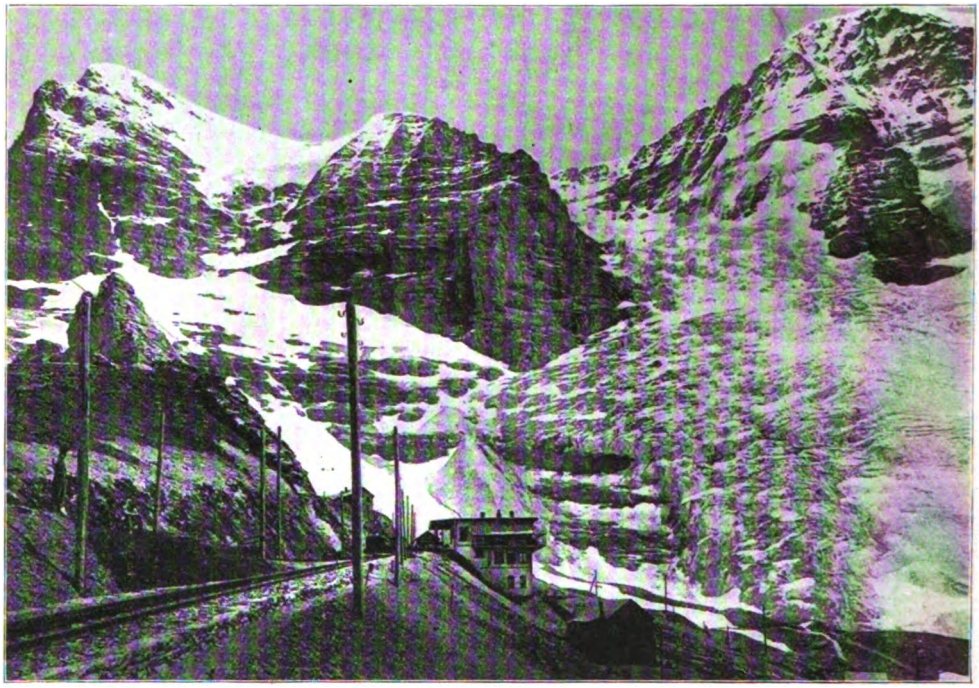
The first twenty minutes' run of the trip, over beautiful Alpine pastures, brings you to the Eigergletscher Station, where, if you choose, you may walk over to the Eiger glacier and the artificial ice grotto. Leaving Eigergletscher Station, the line, at a twenty-five per cent grade, enters the side of the Eiger Mountain, which, with the Monch and the Jungfrau itself, form the Jungfrau range. You realize at once now what a mammoth undertaking the construction of this line is, for, different from all other mountain railroads, it is a thing entirely of tunnels. No roadbed, at Jungfrau altitudes, could live amid shifting snows and glaciers on the outside of the mountains. At intervals, galleries, forming the stations on the line, are bored in the face of the mountain. Rothstock is the first one reached after Eigergletscher. The next station, Eigerwand, is cut entirely out of rock, with a waiting-room, a restaurant and a gallery with two arcades that overlook the beautiful Grindelwald Valley. Here, perched high up in a lofty niche, with sheer precipices thousands of feet above and below, you get a typical Swiss picture spread beneath you: Little mountain huts, cattle pasturing in high places, leaping waterfalls and a wild confusion of crags and glaciers.

The Jungfrau line is at present completed no further than Eigerwand, although you can see the workmen tunneling on and up ahead to the next station, which will be Eismeer, the Sea of Ice, at an altitude of 10,720 feet. Only two yards a day in the summertime is the rate the boring progresses, so hard and constant is the black granite. A third of the road is now done; it is expected that six more years will be required to finish it. The mass of rock beneath the peak is so small and precipitous that no railroad would have room to get there. An elevator shaft, 250 feet long, is needed to complete the last link of the line. There will be circular stairs, also, but as oxygen is somewhat rare at this height, it is likely that few people will care to use them. When you step out of this elevator onto the summit platform you will be 13,700 feet above the sea level, more than twenty-seven times as high in the air as if you were at the top of the Washington monu-



THE JUNGFRAU RAILWAY, SHOWING THE EIGER AND THE MONCH

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ment. You will feel as if you were on the roof of the world. In one great sweep you will be able to see more of the world than you have ever seen before.

WARREN HARPER.

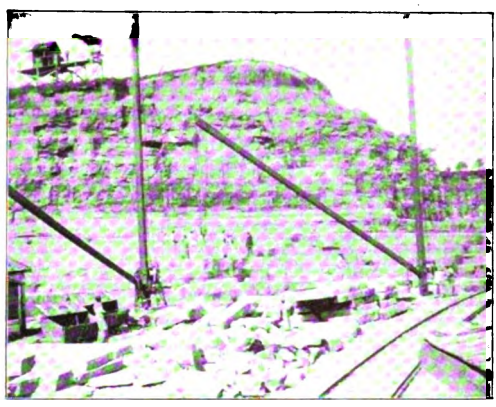
A Model Prison in Iowa

ONE hundred years is not much in the history of the world, but from the Walnut Street Prison of Philadelphia to a modern model prison is much more than a hundred years, measured by other standards than that of the calendar. We have to-day many model prisons, but, so far as I know, the public has little realized that in Iowa there are prisons which are second to none in their ideal conditions. Iowa has two such prisons, one at Fort Madison and one at Anamosa. I desire to speak of the latter.

This state prison was founded at Anamosa in 1872 for the purpose of being near the quarries there in which the convicts could be employed. The buildings themselves have been reared by prison labor at a cost to the state of $618,806, but represent a value of $1,646,046. They are models of construction throughout. Some of the work done there by inexperienced and unskilled labor is certainly second to none. The work in the warden's house can not be excelled anywhere. The floors are of inlaid marble, made out of scrap marble from marble-works in Chicago, and cost the state $400, but represent a value of over $4,000, and more beautiful inlaid work it would be hard to find. The buildings, from the bathroom to the cellroom, are kept scrupulously clean and accommodate about four hundred inmates.

In no way is the contrast so great between the old and the new prison as in the way in which the prisoner is employed. In Anamosa a man can learn cooperage, farming, stone-cutting, electricity, blacksmithing, carpentering, tailoring, baking, etc. Some men have gone from this prison enabled to earn not less than $4 or $5 a day in stone-cutting, and that, too, although some of them had never earned an honest living before. The state received, during the last two years, over $150,000 in return for the labor of the inmates of the prison.

Every effort is being made to furnish the prisoners with as good schooling as



THE QUARRY AT ANAMOSA, IOWA

can be obtained in the common schools outside. Inasmuch as ignorance is not such a cause of crime as is commonly supposed and the ability to pass a good examination is no bar to being boarded at the state's expense, there are always men with schooling enough to supply the teaching force under competent supervision. The library contains 6,695 volumes, and during the past two years, 39,930 books and 24,213 magazines were circulated among the prison cells. The prisoners now and then are given treats in the shape of entertainments and lectures. At present one of the most helpful of all the organizations in the prison is that of the Volunteer Prisoners' League, organized by the "Little Mother," Maud Ballington Booth. If you want to see faces light up and get a good rousing cheer, just stand before these prisoners and mention the name of the "Little Mother." There is also a good Christian Endeavor Society in charge of the prisoners and a good Sunday school whose superintendent, Mr. McCarn, a citizen of Anamosa, has been in his place for twenty years.

A woman who came to visit her boy in the Boys' Reformatory in Lansing, Michigan, was heard to say as she passed out: "Bedad, and I'll go home and have my ither bye stale." Yet prison is prison and no man looks upon the prison pallor as a stylish complexion, and no man within its walls but yearns to exchange his menu for liberty. The discipline is severe. The prison is run on the graded system. There are three grades, the first grade is dressed in gray and contained. (Novem-

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MODEL PRISON AT ANAMOSA, IOWA

ber 20) 271, the second grade is dressed in checks and contained 115, and the third grade is dressed in stripes and contained 16. In addition to the matter of dress other privileges are earned by the better grades. The first-grade men are given better food, may write one letter each week, receive visits from friends once in four weeks. The second-grade men, in addition to having poorer food, can receive visits from friends only once in six weeks and write only once in two weeks. The third grade are given poorer food than the second grade, can not receive visits from friends or write or receive letters except by permission of the warden. Unfortunately the State of Iowa has no indeterminate sentence law, but has a parole law in its place. During the past two years fifty-seven have been paroled or conditionally pardoned, and of that number only four were returned for violating their paroles.

When a prisoner is discharged he is given a complete outfit in clothing at a cost to the state of $9.66, but equal to $20 or $25 if purchased at outside rates. He is also given $5 as a gift and transported to his home. The average cost to discharge each prisoner is $19.13, or a total cost to the state of $8,130.25 for the last two years.

I am sorry that I have no picture to show what a model warden looks like, but I wrote to Warden Hunter, asking for a photograph of a "model warden," and only received the reply that he was sorry that he had "no subject for such an illustration." His modesty is equal to his ability. GEORGE LUTHER CADY.

Cotton Stalk Paper

AS a result of investigations now being made by the Federal Department of Agriculture, the public will soon be put in possession of all obtainable facts relating to the manufacture of paper from cotton stalks. The bulletin which the department expects to issue will not deal primarily with the possibility of such manufacture, since that has already been demonstrated, but with details, such as the just profit per ton, the proper methods of preparing for market, etc.

Not until a short time ago was it known that paper was actually being made from the material named. The manufacturers were not anxious to have the fact exploited, since they did not wish to invite competition and because, too, they were selling their product in such a way as to leave the impression that it was made of materials regarded as standard by the trade, and they feared the truth might cause the market value to decrease. The efforts of a Georgia congressman, Hon. William Marcellus Howard, were largely responsible for the first dissemination of reliable information in the premises, and for the interest now being manifested by the Department of Agriculture, particularly through Chief Beverly T. Galloway of the bureau of plant industry. Mr. Howard discovered that a factory at Atlanta, Georgia, was using cotton stalks as the principal ingredient of the pulp from which its paper was made, and on securing samples of the finished product found that it compared favorably in every way with the best grades of Irish linen. He exhibited these samples to Secretary of Agriculture Wilson and other officials of the department and as a result the investigations already spoken of were commenced. Chief Galloway made a trip through several southern states recently and what he saw makes him believe that the millions of tons of cotton stalks which are annually destroyed, being regarded as absolutely worthless, could probably be utilized to the profit of the producer if machinery of the proper kind could be procured.

Particular importance attaches to the matter because of its bearing on the boll weevil question. The boll weevil, which, according to the census bureau, last year destroyed cotton to the value of over

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$49,000,000, is being vigorously combated by the Department of Agriculture, and one of the fundamental rules laid down by those in charge of the work is that all cotton stalks in the sections infested should be destroyed in the autumn in order to prevent the hibernation of the weevil in them. If the stalks, instead of being burned, could be cheaply baled and shipped to near-by mills, the pests would not have their shelter during the winter and the farmer at the same time would have a new source of revenue. The principal things to be done now, in the opinion of the department experts, is to find some cheap and effective method of preparing the stalks for shipment and to induce capitalists to invest their money in factories.

Congressman William C. Lovering, of Massachusetts, who is an extensive manufacturer of cotton goods and paper, has recently made a tour through the South for the purpose of investigating conditions with a view to the establishment of one or more plants for the making of paper from the newly discovered material. Mr. Lovering already holds some patents on processes. He could probably put these to practical and immediate use in some of his New England mills, but he prefers to manufacture paper from cotton stalks, if he manufactures it at all, in the region where the cotton stalks abound. It is Mr. Lovering's opinion that nothing but clean, selected linen rags will make as good pulp as the stalks. His calculations lead him to believe that if put on the market in competition with wood pulp, the pulp made from the stalks would command a materially higher price. The Department of Agriculture figures that the weight of each year's crop of stalks is from seventy million to ninety million tons.

At a time when the print paper output is in the hands of an alleged trust, and when many newspapers are actually reducing their size as a result of the prevailing high prices and the scarcity of the product they use so freely, the possibilities suggested by this embryonic industry are of unusual interest. The manufacture of print paper from the stalks has hardly passed beyond the experimental stage, but its practicability is apparent. A Philadelphia firm which has been making exhaustive tests has discovered that in addition to two grades of fiber, suitable for pulp-making, the decortication and desiccation of the cotton stalks results in the acquisition of a considerable quantity of wood alcohol, a large amount of valuable gum and several hundred pounds, per ton of stalks, of a kind of cellulose which is much better than the cotton fiber itself in the making of gun cotton. The presence of these by-products has been certified to the Department of Agriculture.

C. Arthur Williams.

Statues by Photography

The use of the photographic camera for the plastical reproduction of the external shape of a model is by no means novel. In fact, as far back as in 1861, the Parisian sculptor Willème made some more or less successful attempts in this direction. Taking as many views as possible of the same object from different positions, these views were used in calculating the various dimensions of the model, and were translated to the molding block by means of a pantograph.

In this, as well as in any other methods since suggested, the skill of the artist played the most important part, but there has just been presented to the Berlin public an interesting mechanical process, where light alone produces the plastic effect desired. The new process, invented by Signor Carlo Baese, of Florence, who lately lectured about his invention at the Berlin Urania, necessitates only the taking of ordinary views of the subject, whereupon, by means of photography and without any retouching or correcting on the part of the artist, a relief corresponding perfectly to nature is obtained by employing the swelling properties of chromium gelatin. This substance will lose more or less its power of swelling according to the intensity of illumination to which it is exposed, so that a layer of it, on being printed beneath a negative, will reproduce the different shades of the negative in relief, with a clearness of detail that an artist would have the greatest difficulty in securing.

The only drawback met with in previous attempts was the fact that the transparency of a negative is by no means proportional to the relief of the model, but

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depends on a multitude of other factors as well. The colors of the model play an important part, while the actual distribution of the light is not without its influence. Mr. Baese has eliminated this difficulty in a most ingenious way. The model is illuminated by means of a projection lamp, the light rays striking it at right angles to the direction in which the photograph is to be taken. By means of a light filter, the light from the projection lamp is graded, so that the illumination decreases in intensity gradually from the left to the right, the model being illuminated so as to have the foremost parts

A RELIEF PRODUCED BY THE BAESE PROCESS

struck by the brightest and the back parts by the darkest portions. This gradation of light is, however, so modified by the different inclination of the surfaces on which it is distributed as to be hardly recognizable from the photographic camera. A view obtained with a similar illumination will, therefore, by no means reproduce the most salient portions as the most opaque; this would not either be obtained if the model were uniformly illuminated with white light. The coloring of the model, as a matter of course, would also have its influence on the plate, so as to give values quite independent of the height of the points in question.

If, after the exposure of this first plate, the gradation filter in the projection lamp be inverted, so as to have the most transparent portions replaced by the darkest, and vice versa, the luminous intensity on the model will augment from the front toward the back. After a second exposure is made with this new illumination, no further views will be necessary. The transposition of the plate and the light filters is effected automatically by shifting a slide, both exposures thus being made readily within one second. After the plates are developed, the gradation of the two views is seen to be lost almost entirely, while the coloring of the model is visible in the same way on either of the views. If one of them be printed as a diapositive and superposed on the other negative, a composite figure will be produced which accurately corresponds to the conditions above outlined; in fact, any projecting parts in the model will be most strongly covered, while the back parts are represented by the most transparent portions, regardless of the color of the original.

The height of relief may be adjusted by means of a relief copying machine.

D. A. GRADENWITZ.

Trees in a Treeless Land

WHEN the pioneers came to Oklahoma fifteen years ago they found vast areas of rich prairie land waving with wild flowers and native grasses, but without trees, save along the ravines and small tributaries that led to the streams. Because of their fertility, these lands were most desired by farmers. The trunk line railroads traversed the prairies, and naturally a majority of the towns were built there. Citizens who came from states abounding in hills and forests soon felt the monotony of the landscape. Withering heat burned in summer, and cold winds swept down in winter upon their unprotected homes. The towns were ugly, dusty and disheartening. Many a settler grew homesick for the shade and coolness of the timbered country of Ohio, Indiana, Missouri and Tennessee. The discomfort and loneliness were a burden upon the women, who grew nervous and worn.

There were men who saw early that it might be possible to improve, not only the

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landscape, but climatic and crop conditions, by the planting of trees. They felt that the temperament of the people was dependent largely upon the beauty and comfort of their environment, and they knew that practical forestry had shown a close connection between tree growth and rainfall. But persons with a working knowledge of forestry under the new conditions were few in number in Oklahoma in the early days, and their efforts to arouse interest in the subject met with little encouragement, so absorbed were the settlers in their struggle for subsistence.

Nine years ago the town of Perry, in Noble County, was typical in every way of the treeless towns of Oklahoma. Its streets were poorly kept and unsightly. In the heart of the town was a public square or park, with scarcely a blade of grass to hide its repulsive nakedness. Its red dirt was blown in clouds down the streets and into store buildings and residences. The town was gaunt in its poverty of foliage. Among its citizens was W. T. Little, who loved trees and was familiar with scientific forestry. In 1895 he told the board of commissioners of Noble County that if they would agree to pay the cost of cultivation for five years, he would transform the desertlike park into a waving forest, and charge nothing for his services. The commissioners signed an agreement with Mr. Little, and authorized him to spend as much money as he might find necessary.

In the spring of 1895 Mr. Little bought ten thousand American white elm seedling trees and planted them in three acres of the park. The seedlings were so small that a boy carried two hundred of them in his pocket, and a row of them could not be followed with the eye. The ground was plowed nine inches deep, and then sub-soiled to an equal depth, and thoroughly pulverized. In this way the seedlings became so deeply rooted that they hid themselves from the hot Oklahoma sunshine that blistered the surface of the ground. It was here, in this deep planting, that Mr. Little learned an important requirement in tree culture in Oklahoma. The seedlings were cultivated six times a year, each time as soon as possible after a seasonable rain. They were irrigated only once, the first year, their deep roots tapping a constant supply of moisture. In

A SEVEN-YEAR-OLD ELM

the fall of 1895 one seedling had grown to be three feet high. A year later its height was six feet. When this tree was "topped" last spring it was more than thirty feet high. Only one seedling is known to have died. Everywhere in the park are trees from three to seven inches in diameter at the base, and from ten to fifteen feet in height. The trees now canopy the park with shade, and citizens call the attention of strangers to their beauty. Trees have been planted everywhere in the town. Mr. Little grew the trees at a profit to Noble County. More than enough trees were sold in the first three years to pay the cost of the seedlings and their five years' cultivation. One man offered twelve and one-half cents each for the surplus trees when they were three years old. Eight hundred large trees remain in the park.

The establishment of the park aroused such interest in tree culture in Oklahoma that Charles Alling, of Guthrie, Oklahoma, in appreciation of Mr. Little's unselfish public service, authorized him to announce that next spring Mr. Alling will give forest trees to every school district in Oklahoma, of which there are about three thousand. The only cost to the school districts will be the freight.

In a no less practical way, Mr. Little is growing commercial timber. He owns a

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walnut grove that, since 1894, has grown from nuts planted in sod to trees fifteen feet high. A single walnut tree sold lately in Oklahoma for $1,600 for export to Germany. In fifteen years Mr. Little's walnut trees will be worth a considerable sum of money.

The campus of Oklahoma University, at Norman, Oklahoma, was bare prairie land in 1894. David R. Boyd, president of the university, realized his opportunity and began planting trees, giving them every advantage of intelligent cultivation. The campus, as early as three years ago, had become a forest of elm, black locust, maple, ash and box elder. In 1902, the university had about thirty thousand American white elm trees from three to twelve feet high to be used in extending the area of the original planting. The long avenues leading to the university are lined with beautiful trees. So actively did citizens imitate President Boyd in the planting of trees that large portions of the once treeless town are now submerged in shade.

What Mr. Little and President Boyd have done for their respective towns, other men are doing for other towns in Oklahoma. Town builders in this new country have found that streets and private grounds adorned with trees are attractive to homeseekers, and that social conditions respond to municipal improvements that combine beauty and comfort.

FREDERICK S. BARDE.

THE CAMPUS OF OKLAHOMA UNIVERSITY, AT NORMAN, OKLA.

Italian Farm Labor in the South

IT has until recently been assumed that in the Negro the South had a laborer who would do all the work wanted and keep out foreign immigration. But with the unsatisfactory work of the Negro, the high price of cotton, the desertion of the fields by blacks who go to the cities to lumber mills, railways, etc., and by whites who go into the new manufacturing enterprises, the planter is beginning to wish for immigration. Already more cotton is produced than can be gathered. The planters believe that in order to supply the demand and to keep down foreign competition in cotton growing, they must prepare to gather a crop of fifteen million bales, and there is not enough labor to gather more than twelve million bales.

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They recognize that they have missed the best of the immigrants—those who went to the West. But the hopes of many are turning to the Italians, who are coming in increasing numbers and who, contrary to expectation, are making good agricultural laborers.

In several of the southern states the authorities encourage the coming of the Italians. The North Italian is preferred, but the principal immigration comes from southern Italy and the old papal states. In Arkansas, Mississippi, Tennessee and Texas are numbers of Italian farmers. It has been estimated that there are more than one hundred thousand Italian farm laborers in the southern states of the Mississippi Valley. On the cotton and sugar plantations wherever they go they supplant the Negro. Hon. N. S. Dougherty, of Baton Rouge, Louisiana, a cotton planter, reports that he gives employment to about forty Italian families, some as renters, others as day laborers. As laborers, he says, they are obedient and peaceable, and do not quarrel among themselves or with the Negroes whom they avoid. They work better than the Negro, keep their crops in better cultivation, and their stock in better condition. They soon learn how to perform any plantation tasks, require less supervision than the Negro, work well in cold weather and without difficulty learn to use the machinery and implements of a cotton and sugar plantation. At first they are provided for just as the Negroes are, and have the same plantation privileges, and the same opportunities. They are much more economical and require less furnishing. After four years' work some of them bought small farms at $40 to $50 per acre and are now doing well. They raise everything at home, have model farms, and do not frequent the towns.

Other employers in that community are emancipating themselves from dependence upon unstable Negro labor. Along the Mississippi River, from Baton Rouge to New Orleans, the Sicilian is displacing the Negro on sugar and cotton plantations. They are much sought for by the planters who have found them reliable. A Sicilian can live on what a Negro would waste, and makes $4 clear where the Negro makes $1; and what he makes he saves. Each year in the fall thousands come from Sicily and the northern cities of the United States to the sugar plantations of Louisiana and Mississippi for the cane cutting—*la zuccarata,* they call it. After *la zuccarata* is over many go north and work until the next fall. Some return to Italy.

Not only are the cotton and sugar planters who are acquainted with Italian labor seeking more of it, but the scarcity and instability of Negro labor in the pine lumber and turpentine industry has caused a movement among the lumbermen and manufacturers of naval stores to get Italian labor. It is proposed that agents be sent to the northern ports and to St. Louis to turn the Italians to the south. The Society for the Protection of Italian Immigrants recently sent an agent over the South to see if conditions were favorable for Italian immigration. He received many requests from Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri and Mississippi for Italians to work on farms and in mills. At the time of writing, the agent of the White Star Line at Naples is in southwest Texas arranging for the colonization of ten thousand Italian families, numbering forty thousand to fifty thousand people, along the line of a new railroad, controlled by the Rock Island System, between Corpus Christi and Brownsville. The Italian government officials have recently begun to favor immigration to the South, and use their influence to that end.

WALTER L. FLEMING.

An Aerial Electric Railway

A NEW form of trolley is rapidly coming into use, called the Telpher. It is used for transporting loads through the air at different elevations from the surface. In place of the motor rope or cable so frequently employed in cable traction systems, the trolley moves along the wire or other support, operated by the electric current which it secures from the feed wire.

In constructing the Telpher, the way along which the trolley travels depends upon the load to be carried. For a system several miles in length, a small steel cable is frequently employed, supported by poles in the same manner as the ordinary telegraph wire or electric cable. Above this is stretched the current wire. It is connected at regular intervals by elbows

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THESE SANDBAGS WEIGH 500 POUNDS

or some other form of rigid support, curved so that the trolley will pass along the cable or wire without coming in contact with the current wire or fastening, except where the trolley bar touches the current wire.

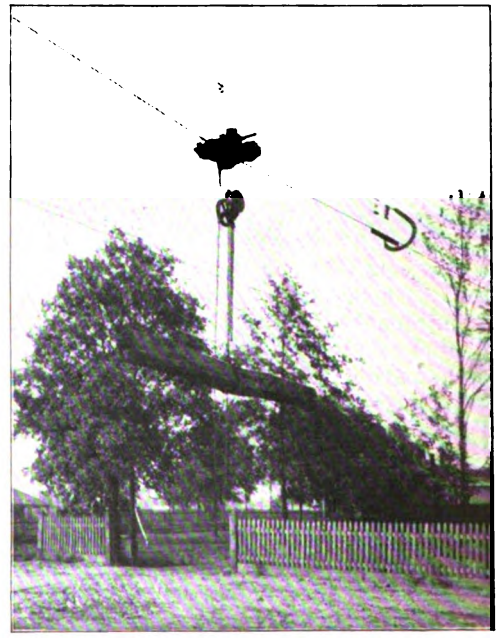
The trolley itself may consist of one or several motors, according to the service required. It is placed upon the cable or wire in such a manner that the weight is equally divided on either side, thus assisting in keeping it properly balanced. In the more elaborate forms of the Telpher, six and eight horse-power motors are utilized, but for the shorter systems, one or two are generally sufficient. These are employed not only for moving the load along the line from place to place, but for lifting it from the ground, one motor being utilized for hoisting purposes and the other or others for the horizontal motion.

The system adapts itself to a very wide variety of uses, especially in large industries where loads must be carried distances varying from a few hundred feet to several miles. By utilizing a platform, barrels, boxes and other packages can be transported. By employing merely a chain and hook, lumber and other bulky articles can be carried with equal facility, while it is especially useful in transferring earth, ore, coal, ashes and other material of this kind in buckets and boxes. Some of the larger systems will carry from three hundred to six hundred pounds weight to every trolley employed.

The services of the ordinary motorman are dispensed with. At convenient points are stations where wires are run from the current wire to electric switches, so that the current can be turned on and off whenever desired. By this form of control, the Telpher can be started and stopped without loss of time. The hoisting motors can also be controlled in the same manner. The current is, of course, supplied from any convenient generating unit; in large industries, where there is an installation for running machinery and for electric lighting, a portion of this can be readily diverted to the aerial tramway.

One of the principal advantages of the system is that the line can be constructed over trees and other obstacles which would necessitate a considerable expense to remove if an ordinary electric railway were built. The rate of speed varies according to the power employed and the grade or ascent of the cableway. With a motor developing from four to six horse-power, from eight to fifteen miles an hour can be attained.

D. A. Willey.



AERIAL TROLLEY CARRYING TIMBER

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BOOKS AND READING

A Treatise on Matrimonial Institutions*

IT is not often in these days that an American scholar takes the time to produce a three-volume treatise. He is more apt to furnish separate volumes upon phases of the subject. Professor Howard, however, has proved the exception, and in three volumes has given an exhaustive treatment of his subject which makes works like Westermarck look almost insignificant. But his treatise is not a general history of marriage. He does indeed give us an elaborate discussion of the various theories as to the origin of matrimony obtaining in the scientific world, but his real interest is in the history of matrimonial institutions of England and America. At this point Professor Howard's work is easily without a rival. There is nothing in existence which gives such elaborate and precise information concerning the history of civil and ecclesiastical marriage in the United States. Nor is the work of value simply as giving the opinions of Professor Howard, valuable as they are. It is a thesaurus of material for the student of sociology as well. Sometimes—as in the account of Judge Sewall—it is in fact too lavish in detail. The references to literature are almost appallingly exhaustive. There has been no sociological work published in America comparable with this for thoroughness and elaborateness of treatment. To appreciate this fact one needs only to observe that there are 140 pages in the bibliographical index, besides a very elaborate case index. The volume is indispensable for the lawyer and the sociologist. For the lawyer because it gives the sociological background of lawmaking, and for the sociologist because it shows the legal codification of social customs. Nor should the general reader be terrified by the volumes' size. They are far enough from being uninteresting.

*A History of Matrimonial Institutions. By George Elliott Howard, Ph.D. The University of Chicago Press. Vol. I, pp. 473; Vol. II, pp. 497; Vol. III, pp. 449. $10 net.

America, Asia and the Pacific. By Wolf von Schierbrand. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 334. $1.50 net.

Dr. von Schierbrand has already published one admirable book this year upon the weaknesses of Russia, but in the present volume he has treated the entire eastern question in its relation to the United States of America. In it there has been brought together a very large amount of information concerning Russia, Japan and China and South America, but the volume is something more than a mere encyclopedia; it is a sustained and powerful argument for the American supremacy over the Pacific. Dr. von Schierbrand is no friend of Russia, and believes that Russia is no friend of ours. Incidentally he criticises Mr. Colquhoun for his prophecy that the future may see Russia and Germany dominating the East with the United States working in South America rather than in Asia. Dr. von Schierbrand believes that the United States must stretch out to the West, and that by naval supremacy. The power of Great Britain he regards as waning in the East, while America is the best equipped for the great struggle which is to come between Russia, Japan and itself for the control of Asia. The volume is thus a weighty argument for imperialism. However one may question its conclusions, it is one to be read seriously as a study of the forces and tendencies laid bare by the Russo-Japanese war which must affect the United States. As a succinct analysis of these tendencies, showing the strength and the weaknesses of the various nations involved, it is a contribution of real importance to current political literature.

The Gems of the East. By A. H. Savage Landor. New York: Harper & Brothers. Pp. 567. $4 net.

Mr. Landor is well known because of his remarkable adventures in Tibet. In his present generous volume he has made an elaborate study of the Philippines. Thanks to the assistance rendered him by Governor-General Taft, he traveled thoroughly through the archipelago, and his volume is a most interesting combination of fact, adventure and opinion. Mr. Landor's style is never unattractive. He is interested in the life of the people and has a journalistic knack of seeing that which will interest other people. There is not a page in the volume that does not contain something worth reading. You may learn what diseases the natives have and how they try to cure them; what their native language is; how lepers live; how fish and game are caught; how the natives dance; how the Americans suffer from heat rash. You can see the pictures of all sorts of uncivilized natives and of various islands. There are anthropometric

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statistics concerning the size and strength of the various peoples and data as to their many characteristics. There are stories of official honor, and stories of official graft. And there is a vivid account of the Sultan of Sulu. Taken altogether, Mr. Landor has done the American people an exceedingly valuable service, if in nothing more than that he has shown us that one who knows the islands well can be enthusiastic over their possibilities.

Ancient History. Revised Edition. By Philip Van Ness Myers. Boston: Ginn & Co. 639 pages. $1.50.

Myers' Ancient History has long been regarded as the best school text-book of ancient history, and this thoroughly revised edition will be welcomed by teachers. The history of oriental nations, especially, has been entirely rewritten in accordance with recent discoveries, and the treatment of Greek and Roman history has been greatly improved. An important merit of the work is that the relations of the various nations to one another are kept in sight constantly. The narrative is brought down to Charlemagne, thus covering a gap of three centuries often neglected in school histories. Bibliographies, maps and illustrations are ample and satisfactory.

Francis Parkman. By Henry Dwight Sedgwick. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 345. $1.10 net.

That admirable series of "American Men of Letters" has received a worthy addition in Mr. Sedgwick's life of Francis Parkman. It is not as elaborate as that of Mr. Farnham, and more than half of its pages are devoted to the period which precedes the publication of the first of the historical works which really made Parkman famous. The record of this early period in Parkman's life consists largely of quotations from Parkman's diary. The latter portion of the volume contains extracts from Parkman's brief diary, and a number of letters from his friends as well as from himself. In his last chapter Mr. Sedgwick attempts to introduce the reader into a more intimate acquaintance with the historian, but unavoidably fails. Mr Parkman's was a character which seems the more impersonal the more one reads about it. It goes without saying that Mr. Sedgwick's volume possesses literary charm and interest.

Modern Electricity. By James Henry and Karel J. Hora. Chicago: Laird & Lee, $1.50.

This excellent hand-book for students and apprentices contains a practical exposition of the principles of electricity and the construction and operation of electrical machinery. It is profusely illustrated with diagrams and drawings. Unlike many text-books it explains the actual details of dynamos, motors, etc., under present working conditions, with the many devices adapted to correct errors and losses experienced in machines of the earlier types. It is intended for the use of electrical engineers, machinists and other persons employed in the manufacture or operation of electrical machinery. The language is simple and the method thorough. Many valuable tables add to the usefulness of the book.

What is Art? By Leo Tolstoy. Translated by Aylmer Maude. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. Eighty cents net.

This edition of one of Tolstoy's latest books should have a wide circulation. It is said by the author to be the first correct edition, for the book, as published in Russia, was so mutilated and altered by the censors that it did not represent his views; and translations from that version do not give his position correctly. Tolstoy rejects all the current theories of art, especially all those which are based on a doctrine of objective or ideal beauty. Art is, according to his definition, a means of transmitting feeling from the artist to the subject; "infection" is his favorite phrase. He therefore denies the existence of any genuine art which appeals only to a limited circle of specially trained connoisseurs. Only that art is good which transmits feelings which are good; so that the decadent art now in fashion is all bad. Of course, in this position as to the relation of art to morality, as well as in the subjective standard he adopts, Tolstoy runs counter to the critics of nearly every contemporary school, and classes himself with the Philistines, the common people, who like pictures that "take hold" and convey a moral impulse. In every chapter his keen criticism of conventional ideas, his search for ultimate values, are stimulating to the reader who has hitherto accepted his artistic views on authority. The translation is smooth and flowing, and is supplemented by translations of the French poems quoted as illustrations.

Richard Gresham. By Robert Morss Lovett, New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 302. $1.50.

No more sincere and powerful story has appeared of late than this first novel of Mr. Lovett. Unlike most first novels it is something more than a story and the farthest possible from the "hit-and-run" products with which so many writers undertake to win technic at the expense of the reading public. Mr. Lovett's book has maturity and lacks all evidences of experimenting. It is a study of human life and motive with the interest centering upon a person rather than upon action.

The story is the life history of a young man whose father proved a defaulter, and who was trained by an uncle from early boyhood to repair his father's wrong-doing and to rehabilitate the family name. The real purpose of the book is to show how this purpose of the uncle became the supreme moral motive in the nephew's life and served as a protection against temptations to pleasure or mere success. Notwithstanding this somewhat abstract motive, Mr. Lovett never for a moment philosophizes, and far less preaches. The nearest approach to it is at the moment when one of the officers of the bank who have allowed Gresham senior to be their scapegoat undertakes to persuade his son that he should not attempt to rehabilitate his father through the courts. But even there Mr.

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Lovett spares his reader. Gresham has his "regiment of platitudes" with which to meet those of his opponent, but he keeps silent. With characters that stand out as real persons, with vigor and action, which hold the reader most intently, the volume leaves one question unanswered: Has Mr. Lovett really found a motive strong enough to hold his hero to his work? We fear he has not. Richard Gresham's moral development is on the one side fortuitous and on the other side parasitic. Circumstances and the strong will of his uncle and of the actress Florence make him steadfast. Yet this lack of moral motive is in one way the strongest element in the book. Mr. Lovett has no thesis to prove. He is portraying actual life, and, despite our wishes to the contrary, the moral development of most men is precisely that of Richard Gresham himself, fortuitous and parasitic. One could have wished that Mr. Lovett had chosen to portray a man who was more self-reliant and whose motives were more distinct, and whose moral growth was more swayed by considerations which Christianity has shown to be the real makers of character. But he has chosen another type, and he has given us a book that is not only a promise of large achievement but is itself a piece of real literature.

The Rose of Old St. Louis. By Mary Dillon. New York: The Century Company. Pp. 460. $1.50.

It is with considerable hesitation that a reviewer nowadays approaches a historical novel written by a woman, and his hesitation is all the more pronounced when he discovers that it is to deal with the period which has been so thoroughly exploited by Winston Churchill in "The Crossing." In the case of "The Rose of Old St. Louis," however, this prejudice melts away rapidly. The volume has real charm and proportion. It deals with the adventures of a handsome young American of high family, who first appears as a member of the army that is to win New Orleans for America and subsequently goes to France where he gets behind the scenes at the time of the drawing of the treaty which gave the United States Louisiana, returns to see St. Louis transferred to the United States, and marries the most beautiful girl he has ever seen. Could any plot be more attractive? But, besides all this, the hero meets most of the distinguished persons of the period and shows himself singularly fortunate in a variety of adventures. It is a sort of historical novel that is really worth reading.

Four Roads to Paradise. By Maud Wilder Goodwin. New York: The Century Company. Pp. 347. $1.50.

Maud Wilder Goodwin belongs to a little group of women who write conscientiously and with a singular apprehension of human motives. The four roads to Paradise are the four ways to happiness: Influence, work, money and love. Each one of these is represented by a man of pronounced type. As we might expect, it is love that is finally seen to be the most desirable. The clergyman who represents influence yields to the subtle temptation of success; the scientist who represents passion for work, is stricken by the death of a boy he had loved but neglected; and the business man, determined to be wealthy, goes insane through high living and disappointment in love. But the woman who sacrificed millions to marry the man of her choice, finds the road to joy. Stated thus baldly the plot seems somewhat abstract, but the volume is singularly human and convincing. Altogether it is one of the most satisfactory studies any novelist has given us of late.

Fiction

A few months ago there appeared a charming little sketch, "The Transfiguration of Philura," by Florence Morse Kingsley, who had already published that most read and least known book, "Titus." "The Singular Miss Smith" (The Macmillan Company, $1.50) is an exceedingly unconventional and interesting account of a young woman of wealth who determined to discover exactly why a working woman declined to enter domestic service. After listening to a discussion of the question in a woman's club, she experimented for herself. She became a general house girl and had a variety of sufficiently informing experiences. In the meantime, still incognito, she fell in love with a foundry man who turned out later to be a Harvard professor experimenting in the same way, and the book closes with the understanding that he and she together are to see how they can give away her huge fortune. With all its half playfulness the book is singularly in earnest. While it can hardly be said to be a treatise on the morality of being rich, no one can read it without finding that such a question is really proposed.

Novels dealing with the new woman seem to be especially in order just now. None of them have yet reached very high literary grade, possibly because they are so obviously "preachment." "The Confessions of a Club Woman" (Doubleday, Page & Co., $1.50), unlike the recent work of Mrs. Van Vorst, does not deal with the race suicide problem, but is a very clever description of the rise of a young Chicago matron into prominence in women's clubs. The author evidently has had some experience in the politics of such clubs, and some of her descriptions of the meetings make good reading for mere men. Just what effect the book will have upon women too well devoted to the joys of club life it will be hard to say. Its author, Miss Agnes Surbridge, gets the heroine to the place where her husband leaves her, and then reconciles the couple by the means of a railroad accident. Certainly she would not have us infer that such a catastrophe is the one means by which a wife is to be turned from club infatuation to the care of her husband and children!

We have had a good many volumes dealing with modern business methods, but among them all, "The Promoters," by William Hawley Smith (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co., $1.50), stands unique. A man on the way toward insanity concocts a scheme of firing off one hundred thousand cannon in such a way as to change the axis of the earth and so create an entirely new set of climatic and geographical conditions. He or-

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ganizes a stock company to exploit these conditions, tries to get a Nebraska legislature to give him a place for firing off his cannon under the guise of rainmaking, falls into the hands of unscrupulous sharpers, and finally is defeated by an honest man whom he has attempted to bribe. The book is thus an application of Jules Verne's methods to the novel of modern business.

Two purposes stand out clearly in Hamlin Garland's delightful story, "The Light of the Star" (Harper's, $1.50). The one is to show the sanity and enthusiasm of the West, and the other to show the moral struggles through which a playwright and a great actress must pass in order not to pander to the depraved tastes of the ordinary theatergoing public. In a certain way the story is really an exhortation to literary people to produce better plays. Mr. Garland clinches his argument by showing that a sincere actress with a play of real literary value will develop a large constituency from the more cultivated classes. Whether we can all share in Mr. Garland's optimism or not, we can all enjoy his book, with its sincerity and charming literary simplicity.

Henry F. Cope has collected a group of sketches, some of which have already appeared in print, and published them under the title, "The Bonanza Bible Class" (Chicago: Winona Publishing Company, $1 net). As thus constructed the volume is a discussion of various religious topics from the point of view of a miner's camp, and is enlivened with anecdotes of mining experiences. It contains many sensible opinions on practical topics, and the atmosphere of the mining camp, we should judge, is well maintained. There is material in it which might easily be worked up into a more ambitious piece of work.

"The Adventures of Buffalo Bill" (Harper's, sixty cents net) is a small book intended for boys, but it is likely to be read by grown-ups also. One can not help feeling, however, that very much more might have been made out of Colonel Cody's adventurous career than he or the anonymous person who appended the last half of the book of 156 pages has made. The gallant Colonel should have taken P. T. Barnum as his model and given us a detailed autobiography.

A novel which has the unusual virtue of dealing with very ordinary matters of life is "The Little Vanities of Mrs. Whittaker," by John Strange Winter (Funk & Wagnalls Co., $1 net). The book was apparently published to show rather stout middle-aged ladies with grown-up children how to grow slender, dress properly and trust their middle-aged husbands. The only semblance to a plot in it concerns the last point, and even then it is rather vague.

Robert W. Chambers has written some capital novels, but his reputation is not likely to gain much from his latest book, "In Search of the Unknown" (Harper Brothers, $1.50). The volume is a collection of fantastic stories dealing with the search of various scientists for extinct birds and beasts and beings of extraordinary impossibility. As a caricature of nature writing, a few pages of it are not bad. As a whole, however, despite its humor and cleverness, it grows tedious. And then, too, one rather rebels at the rapidity of its lovemaking.

Anything that Mrs. Wilkins-Freeman writes is sure to be good workmanship. In "The Givers" (Harper's, $1.25) she has gathered together a group of stories that have appeared at different times in magazines. And very well-told stories they are. Most of us who are Yankees recognize the type, although Mrs. Freeman paints with a rather broad brush. In these stories, possibly even more than her other work, the humorous side is subordinate to the pathetic, but the pathos is never mawkish and the stories are really literature. Moreover, Mrs. Freeman is making middle age, in which romance used to be thought out of place, an exceedingly interesting period—at least for those persons who are middle-aged themselves!

It has always been something of a surprise that the stormy days of the Kansas-Nebraska struggle should have received so little attention by novelists. Possibly it is because we all want to forget our national shame. However that may be, in "Order No. 11" (The Century Company, $1.50) Caroline Abbot Stanley has given us a novel which represents in a thoroughly sincere and interesting way the Southern side of the years of civil conflict. The struggle between Missouri and Kansas and the violence of border warfare make a background for a love story of real distinction. The volume has the color and atmosphere which belong to all books written by Southern women. Any one who has regarded "Uncle Tom's Cabin" as the final verdict of history upon slavery will find in this volume material for serious consideration.

The automobile is beginning to play a considerable role in novels. Thus we have the romance of the chauffeur in "The Lightning Conductor" and the adventures of "The Cardinal's Rose." It is hardly to be expected that we should fail to have a detective automobile story, and such we have in the absorbing and altogether-out-of-the-ordinary story of Mr. Paternoster's, "The Motor Pirate" (L. C. Page & Co., $1.50). The plot circles about the doings of a mysterious motorist who drives a machine he has invented and which by the use of liquid hydrogen as a power reaches unheard-of speed. The pirate has a terrible past but a very respectable present, except when incognito he holds up automobile parties, kills people who oppose him, drops detectives into ponds. Any one can see materials here for the sort of story it will not do for young children to read just before going to bed, and Mr. Paternoster has certainly utilized his material.

The scene of "The Interloper," by Mrs. Violet Jacob (Doubleday, Page & Co., $1.50) is laid on the east coast of Scotland in the first years of the nineteenth century. The story centers about the adventures of Gilbert Speed, who discovers that he is not the son of the man whose estate he has inherited. He promptly leaves the country and gives up the girl whom he wished to marry. The girl then promises to marry the villain of the story, but the hero appears just as the wedding ceremony is to be performed and marries the heroine himself. Such a plot seems rather conventional, and the book at times is not as interesting as it might be. Frequently, however, it rises to considerable dramatic power, and as a piece of literature it is sincere, if not altogether absorbing.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Casualties.

—July 13.—Twenty-six persons were killed and eighty injured in a wreck on the Chicago and Eastern Illinois Railroad, twenty-three miles south of Chicago.

Deaths.—July 12.—Samuel M. Jones, the "golden rule" mayor of Toledo, died of a complication of diseases.

—July 26.—John Rogers, the sculptor, designer of the noted Rogers groups of statuary, died at New Canaan, Connecticut.

—August 2.—Robert E. Pattison, twice governor of Pennsylvania and a Democratic leader of national importance, died at Overbrook, Pennsylvania.

Labor.—July 12.—In the packing plants of Chicago, Omaha, St. Joseph, Kansas City, East St. Louis, St. Paul, Sioux City, Nebraska City, Fort Worth and New York City, a strike was declared, involving 53,300 employes.

—July 13.—Judge Ludwig, of the Superior Court of Milwaukee, decided that contracts made by employers with labor unions, agreeing to employ only union men, are void, holding that such contracts are class discrimination and are unconstitutional.

—July 20.—The great packing-house strike was settled, both parties agreeing to arbitrate.

—July 22.—The great packing-house strike was renewed.

—July 26.—Eighty-one cotton mills at Fall River, Massachusetts, were tied up by the strike of twenty-six thousand operatives....Governor Peabody, of Colorado, issued a proclamation declaring military rule at an end in the Cripple Creek district.

Land Rush.—July 23.—In a night battle at Bonesteel, South Dakota, four policemen and twelve gamblers were shot. The registration towns for the newly opened Rosebud Indian lands were filled with dangerous characters.

—July 28.—Lots were drawn at Chamberlain, South Dakota, for quarter-sections of the newly opened lands of the Rosebud Indian Reservation.

Lynching.—July 16.—Jesse Tucker, a Negro, was hanged to a railroad bridge for attempting an assault on a white woman in her home.

Navy.—July 18.—The navy department decided that only Congress could grant permission to raise the wreck of the battleship Maine.

—July 21.—The new armored cruiser South Dakota was launched at San Francisco.

Politics.—July 21.—The Missouri Democratic state convention nominated Joseph W. Folk for governor.

—July 26.—Thomas Taggart, of Indiana, was elected chairman of the Democratic national committee. Urey Woodson, of Kentucky, was elected secretary.

—July 27.—Theodore Roosevelt accepted the Republican nomination for President, offered to him by the notification committee....Cyrus P. Walbridge, of St. Louis, was nominated on the first ballot taken by the state Republican convention.

—August 3.—William F. Sheehan, of New York, was chosen to be chairman of the Democratic national executive committee.

Seals.—July 19.—The United States notified Russia that it would be pleased to coöperate with Great Britain in the protection of seals at the Kamander Islands.

Sea Wall.—July 29.—The Galveston sea wall was completed. It is 17,593 feet long, sixteen feet high, sixteen feet wide at the base and five feet wide on top. The wall represents an expenditure of $1,198,318.

Slocum Case.—July 29.—In order that all who could in any way be held responsible for the General Slocum disaster might be brought to trial, the federal grand jury at New York City returned true bills against Frank A. Barnaby, president of the Knickerbocker Steamboat Company; E. J. Atkinson, secretary; W. J. Dexter, treasurer; Captain William Pease, commodore of the company's fleet; Captain William H. Van Schaick, who commanded the General Slocum, and United States Inspectors Henry Lundberg and W. J. Fleming.

Porto Rico

Litigation.—July 27.—Charles Hartzell, secretary of Porto Rico, resigned his office to represent the insular government in the coming trial of cases involving the title to property worth $3,000,000 claimed on one side by the Roman Catholic Church and on the other by the island and municipalities. The property includes churches, schoolhouses and hospitals.

Philippine Islands

Casualties.—July 13.—Floods destroyed the town of San Juan del Monte, near Manila. Two hundred lives were lost.

San Domingo

Litigation.—July 19.—A board of arbitration fixed the liability of San Domingo for the seizure of a railroad belonging to a New York corporation, and the Dominican government pledged its customhouse receipts to pay accumulated claims amounting to $4,500,000.

Hayti

Condemnations.—July 4.—The military tribunal at Port-au-Prince condemned to death by default forty exiled persons accused of complicity in the attempted revolution headed by General Montplaisir, which failed in January, 1904.

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Mexico

President.—July 11.—Porfirio Diaz was re-elected president of Mexico for the sixth time. Ramon Corral was elected vice-president.

Venezuela

Litigation.—July 12.—President Castro demanded $9,750,000 from the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company, as indemnity for alleged aid given to Venezuelan rebels.

—July 25.—The Venezuelan government, by a motion before the federal court, the defense being unrepresented, placed an attachment on all the properties of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company in connection with the indemnity claims against the organization.

—July 29.—The lands and asphalt lakes of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company were seized by a Venezuelan gunboat and troops, at the command of President Castro.

—July 30.—The American and British legations at Caracas protested against the seizure by President Castro of the properties of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company.

Diplomacy.—July 30.—Herr Pelldram, the German minister to Venezuela, notified the Venezuelan government that unless it paid the $3,000,000 of interest on the amount of the award to be paid to the German government as stipulated in the protocols signed by Herbert W. Bowen, representing Venezuela, in February, 1903, he would leave Caracas August 4.

Colombia

Diplomacy.—July 27.—The Colombian Congress severed all diplomatic relations with the United States, after canceling all existing treaties and withdrawing all diplomatic and consular exequaturs.

Ecuador

Cabinet.—July 24.—Owing to a disagreement with President Plaza, General Flavio Alfaro, secretary of war, resigned his portfolio. General Rafael Arellano was appointed to succeed General Alfaro.

Peru

Acre.—July 21.—Peru and Brazil agreed to withdraw their troops from the Acre district and to submit their claims to arbitration.

Argentine Republic

Politics.—July 18.—The congress of Argentina proclaimed the election of Manuel Quintana as president of that republic.

British Empire

Deaths.—July 22.—Wilson Barrett, the actor, died in London.

—July 29.—Frederick Goodall, the English painter, died in London at the age of eighty-two years.

Maybrick.—July 20.—Mrs. Florence Maybrick, the American woman sentenced to death in 1889 in England on conviction of the murder of her English husband, and later sent to prison on a commuted sentence, was released on a ticket of leave, and departed for France from the convent where she was kept after removal from Aylesbury Prison, January 25, 1904.

Politics.—July 27.—A. H. Bright, Liberal, was elected to Parliament from West Shropshire by a majority of 385.

Religion.—August 1.—The House of Lords rendered a decision nullifying the amalgamation, made four years ago, of the Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church.

Tariff.—July 20.—Joseph Chamberlain's tariff commission advocated a triple scheme of duties in Great Britain.

—August 1.—By a vote of 288 to 210 the House of Commons refused to censure certain members of the cabinet for taking part in a Liberal-Unionist conference at which a resolution was passed approving the fiscal policy of Joseph Chamberlain. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the Liberal leader, made the motion for such a vote of censure.

Tibetan Policy.—July 18.—War Secretary Brodrick stated in the House of Commons that Great Britain would not annex Tibet so long as no other power intervened.

Treaty.—July 12.—Foreign Minister Lansdowne and the German ambassador signed an Anglo-German arbitration treaty, the terms of the agreement being identical with those recently concluded by Britain with Italy, France and Spain.

Canada

Deaths.—July 26.—Rear-Admiral Henry Clay Taylor, of the United States navy, who commanded the battleship Indiana in the battle of Santiago, died of peritonitis in Sudbury, Ontario.

Australia

Casualties.—July 12.—Thirty-one lives were lost by the sinking in a gale of the steamer Nemesis off the coast of New South Wales.

British Somaliland

Mullah.—July 13.—The Mad Mullah was fifty miles from Berbera, the capital of Somaliland, and had absolute control over his particular region.

France

Chartreuse Case.—July 12.—The Chamber of Deputies sustained Premier Combes' charges of attempted bribery in the Chartreuse case.

Vatican.—July 20.—France issued an ultimatum to the Vatican demanding the withdrawal of letters recalling bishops under penalty of severance of all relations.

—July 27.—Mgr. Le Nordez, bishop of Dijon, went to Rome in response to papal summons, in violation of the concordat.

—July 29.—France recalled its embassy from Rome and notified the papal nuncio at Paris that his usefulness as the representative of the Vatican was ended. It also discontinued the salary of the Bishop of Dijon for going to Rome in obedience to the papal summons.

Journalism.—August 1.—The *Weekly Messenger*, a famous English newspaper of Paris, suspended publication after an existence of ninety years.

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Belgium

Deaths.—July 30.—Caesar Decock, the Belgian painter, died at the age of eighty-one years.

Switzerland

Deaths.—July 14.—Stephanus Johannes Paulus Kruger, former president of the Transvaal republic, died at Clarens, Canton Vaud, Switzerland, at the age of seventy-nine years.

Spain

Deaths.—July 10.—General Don José Toral y Valasquez, who commanded the Spanish forces at Santiago when that place was taken by the United States troops, died in an asylum for the insane at Madrid, at the age of sixty-six years. He lost his mind brooding over his capitulation.

Servia

Riot.—July 13.—It was reported that twenty men were killed in a riot between socialists and army officers at Kraguyevats.

Roumania

Drought.—August 1.—Drought had almost destroyed the maize crop and the government had prohibited the exportation of maize.

German Empire

Treaty.—July 28.—A commercial treaty between Germany and Russia was signed at Berlin by Imperial Chancellor Count von Bülow and M. de Witte, president of the Russian ministerial council.

Turkish Empire

Diplomacy. — July 30. — American Minister Leishman, in an audience with the Sultan, insisted on a settlement of the question of treatment for the Armenian schools under American protection in Asia Minor equal to the treatment accorded to schools of other nations in the Turkish Empire.

—August 5.—American Minister Leishman notified his government that he had failed to receive the expected satisfactory reply from the Sultan concerning the rights of American citizens in Turkey.

Insurgents.—July 24.—Turkish troops near Kumanova surprised and killed fifty Bulgarians, who were setting fire to granaries.

Russian Empire

Assassinations.—July 17.—The vice-governor of Elizabethpol, a government of the Russian Empire in Transcaucasia, bordering on Persia, was assassinated at Adgshakent.

—July 28.—M. von Plehve, minister of the interior, was assassinated in St. Petersburg by the explosion of a bomb under his carriage.

Reform.—July 11.—The Czar issued a decree abolishing the system of condemning political prisoners by administrative order without judicial trial. There was a reservation in the decree, however, for "exceptional cases."

Russo-Japanese War.—See Japan.

Finland

Exile.—July 30.—Professor Gummerus, of the University of Finland, was exiled to Russia, he being the fourth professor from this institution to be exiled since the assassination of General Bobrikoff. The father of Eugen Schaumann, the assassin of Bobrikoff, was taken to St. Petersburg under a guard of gendarmes.

Morocco

Raisuli.—July 17.—Kaid Benhimaa was appointed governor of Tangier in accordance with Raisuli's demands.

Police.—August 1.—Sultan Mulai Abdul Aziz, in accord with the French government, appointed Captain Fournier, of the French army, to command the Moorish police in the Tangier district.

Chinese Empire

Violence.—July 24.—A Belgian Roman Catholic bishop and two priests were murdered by Chinese in Hupe province, China.

Education.—July 27.—The empress dowager of China donated $7,500 to the Anglo-American mission's medical college building at Pekin.

Tibet

War.—July 13.—The advance of the British mission to Lassa from Gyangtse began, Colonel Younghusband having proclaimed that the British government intended to secure reparation from the Tibetans for their "overt acts of war."

—July 21.—The British expedition forced Karola Pass, ninety-two miles from Lassa.

—July 24.—Tibetan peace delegates met the British mission at Nagartse and professed a willingness to arrange peace if the British would return to Gyangtse. Colonel Younghusband replied that he could make peace only at Lassa, but that he was willing to discuss terms on the way.

Japan

Russo-Japanese War.—July 15.—The cruisers Smolensk and St. Petersburg, of the Russian volunteer fleet, which slipped through the Dardanelles disguised as merchantmen, began to stop British and German merchant vessels in the Mediterranean. The mailbags were taken from a German ship.

—July 17.—After a fight lasting fifteen hours the Russians under General Keller were repulsed in attempting to retake Motien Pass, their loss being at least one thousand killed and wounded.

—July 18.—On account of the Russian seizures of neutral vessels in the Red Sea, Great Britain sent her Mediterranean squadron to Alexandria and two cruisers to the Red Sea.

—July 19.—The Japanese drove the Russians from a fortified height at Kiaotung, on the Chi River, after a hard fight.

—July 20.—Sir Charles Hardinge, the British ambassador to Russia, presented in behalf of his government a strong protest to Russia against the action of the Russian volunteer fleet cruisers in the Red Sea; especially against the seizure and detention of the Peninsular and Oriental steamer Malacca. About twenty British war vessels assembled in and about the Suez Canal.

—July 22.—Oku defeated the Russians under Stackelberg near Newchwang.

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—July 24.—The Russian Red Sea fleet released the German liner Scandia, but retained the British steamer Ardova....General Nozu defeated the Russians under General Stackelberg at Tatchekiao in a battle lasting fourteen hours.

—July 25.—Three Russian torpedo boat destroyers, including the Lieutenant Burukoff, were torpedoed and sunk by the Japanese near Port Arthur....The Vladivostok fleet sank the British merchant steamer Knight Commander and seized the British merchant ship Cheltenham and the German merchantman Arabia.

—July 26.—The British merchant steamer Formosa was seized in the Red Sea by the Russian volunteer cruisers St. Petersburg and Smolensk.

—July 26-28.—Port Arthur was heavily bombarded by the Japanese land forces, who captured the two outer forts on Wolf and Green Hills.

—July 27.—Great Britain sent a protest to St. Petersburg demanding full reparation by indemnity and apology for the sinking of the British merchant steamer Knight Commander by the Vladivostok squadron. The British government decided to take measures to enforce compliance if necessary.

—July 28.—The British merchant steamer Malacca was released by the Russians after an examination of its cargo by the Russian and British consuls at Tangier.

—July 29.—Lieutenant-General Count Keller, commander of the First Siberian Army Corps, was killed by a Japanese shell in a battle at Yangze Pass.

—July 30.—The Russian Vladivostok fleet passed through the Tsugaru Straits into the open Pacific.

—July 31.—After a fight lasting two days the Japanese captured Simoucheng from the Russians, who lost at least one thousand men and retreated to Haicheng, fifteen miles to the northwest. The Japanese lost about four hundred killed and wounded.

—August 2.—The Russians evacuated Haicheng and retreated toward Anshanshan. The Japanese occupied Haicheng.

—August 3.—Russia notified Japan that convicts from the penal camps of Saghalien Island were to be enlisted in the Russian army.

—August 4.—The Russian Vladivostok fleet returned to Vladivostok harbor in safety from its raid east of Nippon....The prize court at Vladivostok decided to confiscate the 59,000 pounds of American flour and railroad equipment on the Portland and Asiatic line steamer Arabia, which was consigned to Japanese ports, and to release the vessel, with the remaining cargo of 142,500 pounds of flour consigned to Hongkong.

—August 5.—Russia notified the Porte of the impending passage through the Dardanelles of some volunteer fleet steamers laden with coal, giving assurances that the vessels would preserve the character of merchantmen throughout the voyage.

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ERRATA

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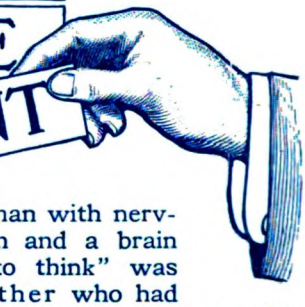

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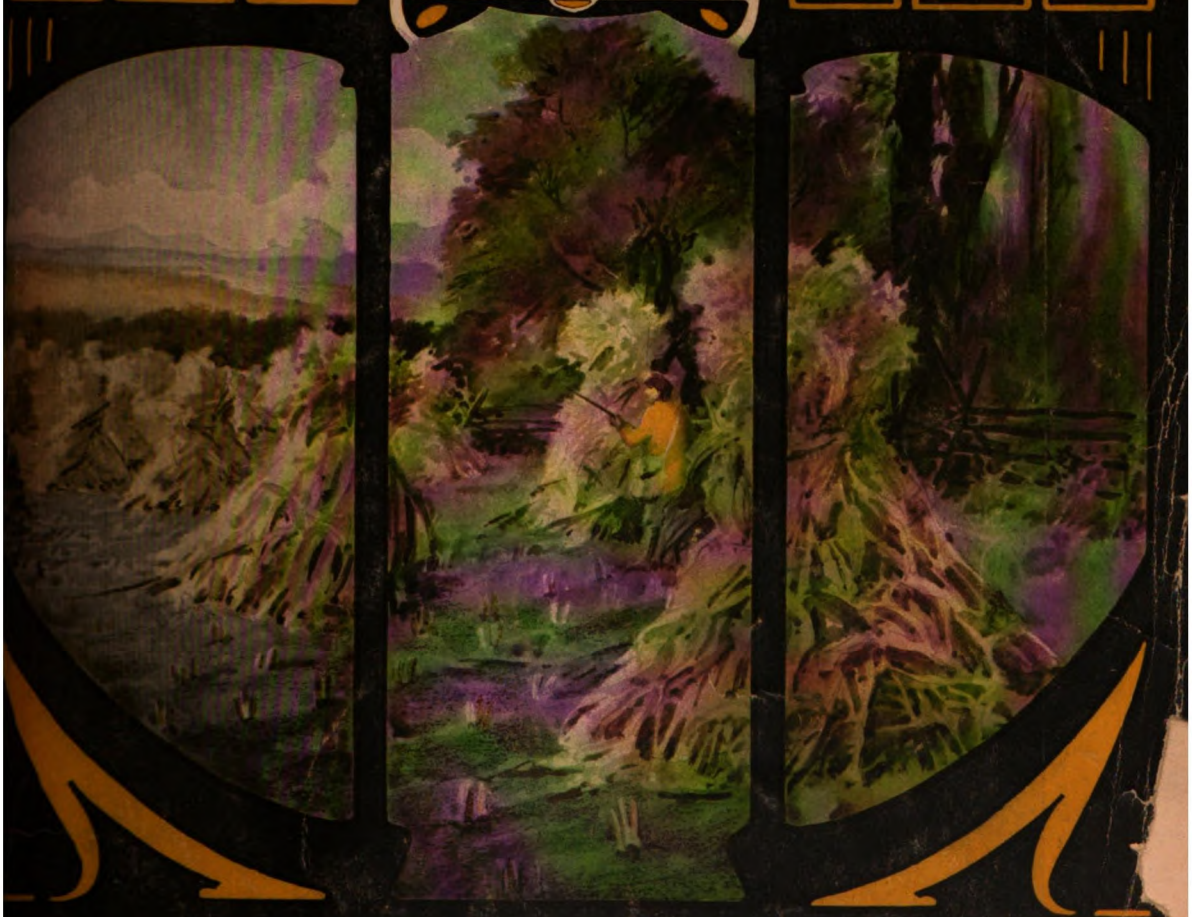

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Pears' Lavender water is a most refreshing addition to the toilet.

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MARQUIS OYAMA AND HIS FAMILY

This photograph of the commander-in-chief of the Japanese armies in Manchuria and his wife, daughter and two sons was taken in the garden of their Tokyo house just before the departure of the Marquis for the front. The Marchioness, at the left of the picture, is a graduate of Vassar.

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The World To-Day

VOLUME VII. OCTOBER, 1904. NUMBER 4

Do We Dare Educate Everybody?

WITH the coming of autumn the United States betakes itself to education. There is no town so poor that it will not see its schoolhouse open and its boys and girls taking up again the routine of study. In the grade school, in the high school, in the college and in the university thousands of young people from all ranks of society will begin anew their preparation for the conduct of life.

Nothing yields itself more readily to rhetoric, and nothing is fraught with larger consequence to the republic. Why should we educate everybody? Why do we pour out money to educate our own and other people's children? Is it that we may insure a race of cultured people? That is what education—at least the higher education—meant a few years since. Beyond the rudiments of reading, writing and arithmetic boys and girls studied almost nothing that could be used after school. We taught them Latin which they would never read; algebra with which they would never calculate; physiology whose rules they would not observe; literature which they refused to read. Results were unavoidable. The cultured classes were the well-to-do classes. The poor had no share in what passed as education.

* * *

We are changing all this. We believe in the education of the hands as well as of the mind. We believe that a boy should be taught to be useful as well as accomplished; that a girl should learn in school that which she does not need to forget in the home. Education is looking toward specialized efficiency.

* * *

Perhaps this is wise; perhaps it is not wise. This is not the question we would raise. That question is: Is America ready to face the conse-

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quences of this universal education for actual life? Culture is essentially purposeless; education is purposeful. But to have a purpose means that a generation is dissatisfied with its present. To arouse an ambition in a generation and to attempt to give that generation larger self-control is also to arouse in it discontent. An educated people can never be content to be contented. Individuals may be indifferent, but a society will be intent. And with this discontent comes a desire to change, to improve, to equalize one's lot with that of another; to increase one's own privileges, and to deprive another of those which seem unjustly his. No wonder some countries have been so much in terror of popular education. The privileged class preferred an ignorant under class that was content, to an educated proletariat that was ambitious. If education is an enemy of superstition, it is also the leaven of equality.

* * *

It is an unpleasant awakening that comes to some of us in these simple facts. Public opinion is too strong to venture to oppose a policy of popular education, but not to silence complaints against attempts actually to educate. "Let the masses learn to read and write, but not to think," is the educational creed of a growing class in our communities. "They should not be educated above their station." Nothing so terrorizes the successful man as the unrest among the children of the unsuccessful man. Yet if discontent in his case spurred him to endeavor, it is hard to see why it should not be praised as it spurs on an entire class. If a desire for larger opportunity, for the abolition of such restraint as prevents the expression of a larger life, and for a larger equalization of opportunity be dangerous, then every public school in the land should be suppressed. The school teacher is then the most dangerous member of the community. As long as we educate people we must be ready to see them dissatisfied with what they have. That, with the fear of the Lord, is the beginning of wisdom. It is also the beginning of a good many other things.

* * *

You can educate the individual away from the masses, or you can educate the masses themselves. The former is the easier and, to most men's minds, the safer program. But it is not the best. A schoolhouse should be the place where social equality and fraternity, and not mere fighting power, are bred. It must create a democracy and not an oligarchy. Do we really want a democracy? If not, let us close the schools!

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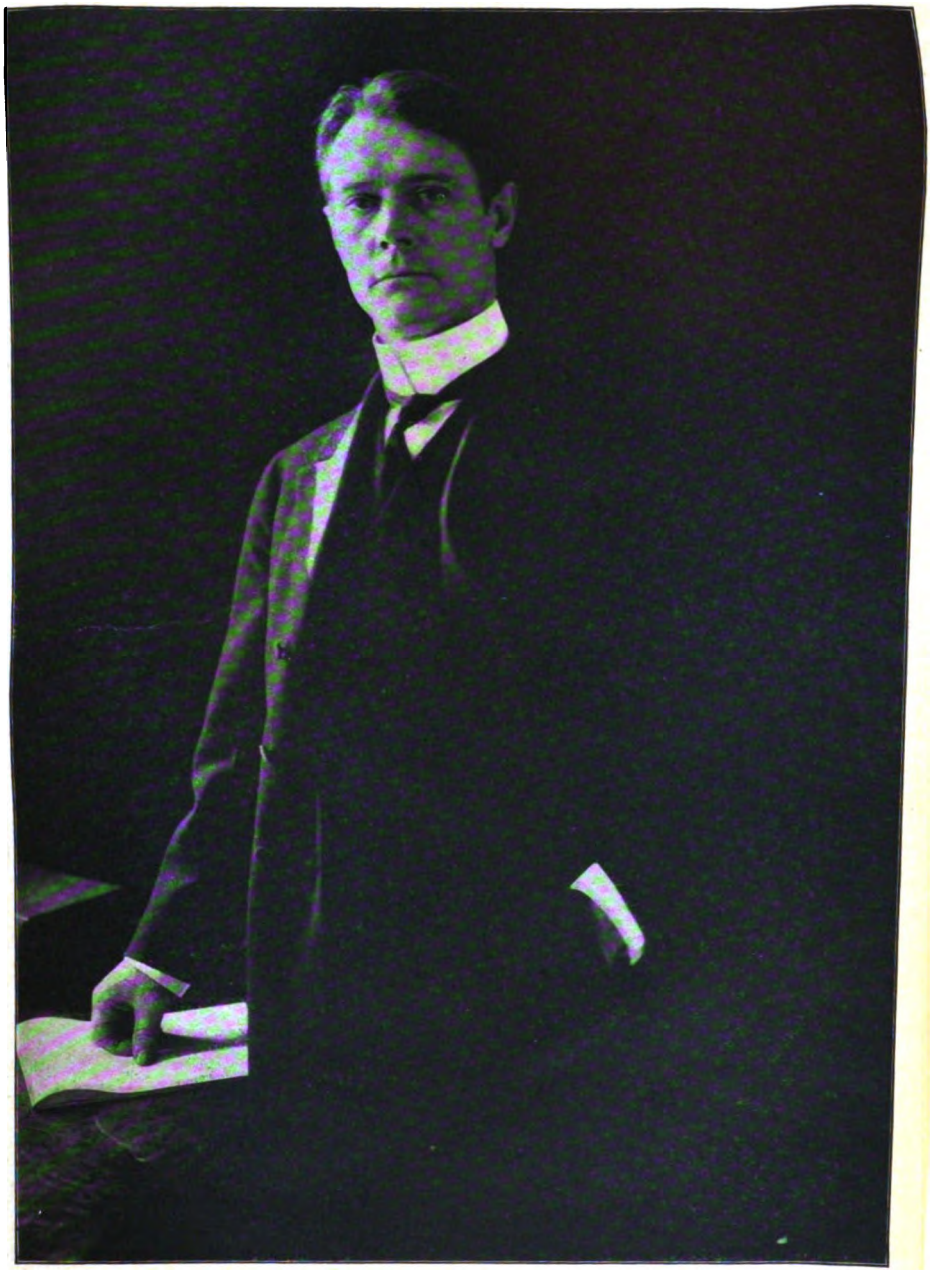

ALBERT J. BEVERIDGE

Few men have risen more rapidly than Albert J. Beveridge, United States Senator from Indiana since 1899, and one of the most effective orators in the Republican party. When he was fifteen years of age, he was a logger and teamster. Eight years later he had graduated from De Pauw University, and fifteen years later was a member of the United States Senate. Mr. Beveridge's oratory is dignified and earnest, and his speech at the recent Republican convention was probably one of the most effective there delivered.

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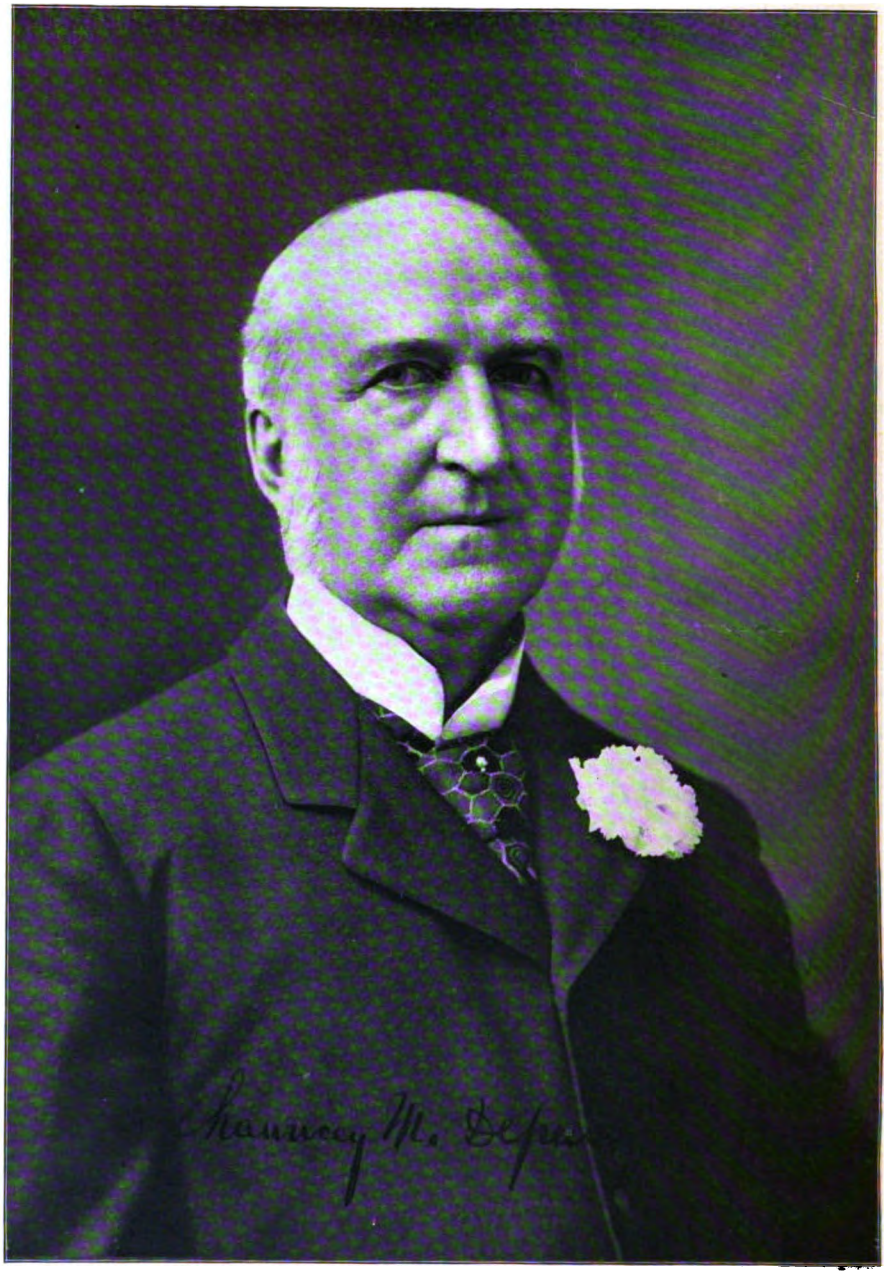

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CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW

Chauncey M. Depew, United States Senator from New York, is universally recognized as one of the most effective campaign speakers. He has been especially happy in his handling of interruptions. His reputation as a storyteller is equal to that he enjoys as an orator. Mr. Depew is a thorough-going corporation man, being chairman of the board of directors of the Vanderbilt roads.

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OLIVER W. STEWART

Oliver W. Stewart, the chairman of the Prohibition National Committee, is thirty-seven years of age. He has always been interested in the temperance cause, and for seventeen years has been one of the chief agitators for political prohibition. In 1902 he was elected to the Illinois General Assembly by the independent vote of his district. As a speaker he is direct and earnest, rather than what is commonly called "oratorical."

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WILLIAM BOURKE COCKRAN

William Bourke Cockran, the orator of New York Democracy, was born in Ireland fifty years ago. He came to the United States as a teacher. Subsequently he became a lawyer and entered New York city politics. He attracted widespread notice because of his addresses in the National Democratic Conventions of 1884 and 1892, in which he opposed the nomination of Grover Cleveland. In 1896 he campaigned for McKinley as a Gold Democrat, but in 1900 returned to the Democratic party on the anti-imperial issue and supported Mr. Bryan.

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

The Nation

The Contest for the Presidency

As is generally recognized, the hope of the Democrats for success in the present national canvass rests, to a considerable extent, upon the dissatisfaction with President Roosevelt supposed to be felt by powerful financial interests which center in New York City. Those interests and the sentiment which they control are thought by many to be capable of delivering the electoral votes of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut to the conservative candidate of the Democratic party. These, with the electoral votes of the South, including Maryland, Kentucky and West Virginia, and those of Indiana, a total of 239, would be enough to elect Judge Parker. The enthusiasm of the radical elements that in 1896 and 1900 carried for the Democratic ticket a number of western states and yet could not prevail in the great Democratic strongholds of the East or even in important southern border states, was deemed by the controlling element at the St. Louis convention of little worth as compared with the policy of conservatism that might lead many voters to think President Roosevelt dangerous by comparison with Judge Parker and bring about the former's defeat in his own section of the country. Upon the theory, therefore, that the President is unsafe and that his party under his leadership is a peril to the republic, the national canvass is being conducted by the supporters of Judge Parker. Naturally, the radical elements that fought desperately for Mr. Bryan, are inclined to stand and gaze in frank astonishment, not knowing precisely how to participate in a campaign where the party cue is to deprecate radical action. Complaints that the Democratic candidate is noncommittal as to his policies, that he has no large reforms in view, are the rebound from his studied reserve. While this serene attitude may spread contentment among the large interests in the East that dislike Mr. Roosevelt, it unquestionably chills the panting radicals. The latter find it difficult to reconcile themselves to the idea that the chief issue is the repudiation of so-called unsound and dangerous policies instead of the advocacy of new policies brimming over with potential merit.

Difficulties in the Way

At the opening of the political campaign it was suggested in these columns that the Republican attitude of complacent self-approbation and pride in existing conditions might prove a weakness to the party. The public's fondness for a set program of constructive work to be undertaken on its authority as soon as possible after an election is well known. But as things have come about, the campaign, as conducted by the opposition party, has the serious disadvantage that its candidate stands for a policy of caution, deprecating the spirit of high adventure which has a share in the statesmanship now prevailing in Washington. His speech of acceptance promises an era of enforcement of existing law, plus a little tariff reform if the Republican Senate will permit of it. Meanwhile, the ship of state shall be so prudently steered that its lookout shall scarcely even glimpse international complications in the offing. If the American public shall become convinced by election day that the present pilot is indeed a reckless mariner, the prospects of a quiet cruise under the guidance of another will be distinctly alluring. But it has not suffered many qualms of apprehension as yet. Indeed, it has had a rather prosperous voyage, so that it is not particularly eager to get rid of the man at the helm. Imperialism in the form of reckless bullying abroad and an oppressive military establishment at home would be an enormous evil. If

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President Roosevelt approves of such things, his opponents have only to convince the people that such is the case to win a victory. Judicious reform of high tariff schedules under the plan suggested by Judge Parker in his speech of acceptance would be approved by many who are not Democrats. But President Roosevelt does not take kindly to the part of brawling adventurer to which his political enemies have assigned him. He has had Secretary Taft and other prudent men vouch for his harmlessness in public addresses. On his own account he reproaches his opponent for not advocating international trade reciprocity, a policy which the President accepts. He points to the Cuban reciprocity treaty as a demonstration of his party's belief in that method of broadening American markets. So far as the Philippine policies of the two parties are concerned, it takes a voter with an active imagination to see a serious difference between the Republican plan of preparing the Filipinos for independence, meanwhile making them no promises, and the Democratic plan of promising independence to them at some indefinite time in the future when they shall have proved themselves capable of self-government. It may be said roughly, therefore, that the question before the voter, so far as the two leading parties are concerned, is rather a question of candidates and party records than a question of issues.

THE GOLD DUST TWINS
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Possible Realignment of Voters

One may fairly conclude that the Democratic campaign managers wish to have it understood that Mr. Roosevelt, as compared with Judge Parker, is the more radical in his ideas. While a general understanding to this effect should serve to draw some conservative votes from Mr. Roosevelt it must tend at the same time to take away from Judge Parker many of the radical votes which Mr. Bryan shepherded so successfully in two national campaigns. Mr. Roosevelt will get some of the latter votes. Mr. Watson, candidate for President on the People's party ticket, will get some of them. Mr. Debs, the Socialist candidate, will get others. It is interesting to observe with what avidity these two candidates of minor parties are seeking votes among the former supporters of Mr. Bryan. Each of them evidently expects to draw to himself a large following. The prophecies of these aggressive candidates as to the disintegration of the Democratic party under its present leadership are persistent and purposeful, since to spread abroad belief in such disintegration must accelerate the process to their own benefit. It may be said with considerable confidence that the minor parties mentioned and perhaps others will make large gains this fall at the expense of the two leading parties. The gains of the Socialist candidate, coming mainly from the cities and the coal mining communities, are especially likely to affect majorities in doubtful states. In the early stages of the canvass the political managers exhibited a good deal of concern respecting the Socialist vote, and extensive inquiries were made to discover as nearly as possible the effects to be produced by it. The Colorado situation growing out of the miners' strike, the strike of the stock-yards workers in Chicago and other cities, and similar influences tending to draw trades unionism into politics, are expected to produce a marked gain in the Socialist vote in industrial communities.

Psychology of the Campaign

He is a poor American who will not save his country when afforded an opportunity to do so by the simple process of casting a ballot. Ingenious campaign managers have many ways of ma-

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king effective appeals to the patriotism of the electorate. The passionate fervor of the free silver advocates in 1896 nearly sufficed to revolutionize the financial policy of the nation. The psychological processes by which an issue or set of issues evolved in cold blood by party managers take hold upon the reason or the imagination of millions of voters and inspire them to intense activity for one party or the other are exceedingly curious. A most interesting study of this nature is afforded by the present attempt to make Mr. Roosevelt appear to be a sort of colossal egotist with an insatiable appetite for getting the nation into trouble with foreign governments. Unfortunately for the success of the attempt, there are no concrete examples of his supposed sins in this direction that have impressed the people. The Panama incident apparently will not suffice, and that is the best material the proponents of the theory have to work upon. As matters stand, the forbidding outlines of the portrait drawn by the opposition are being utilized by Mr. Roosevelt's partisans as proof that the President is his own master and therefore can not be ruled by others. As for Judge Parker, despite his forceful personality and his eminent career, his sudden rise to national leadership of a great party gives his opponents a chance to picture him forth as a puppet moved by concealed forces and to prophesy that his actions as the nation's chief executive would be guided by occult influences rather than by his own judgment. To what extent the voters will be impressed by these labored misrepresentations of two distinguished gentlemen even the election returns will not disclose. But the knowledge that exaggeration of personal traits and distortions of public policies play so large a part in national campaigns should lead the intelligent voter to analyze his prejudices and seek to discover what basis of fact they possess, if indeed they possess any.

PORTO RICAN SCHOOL TEACHERS ON THE UNITED STATES TRANSPORT KILPATRICK
Five hundred in all sailed for home August 16 after six weeks of study at Harvard and Cornell

Can the Democrats Win?

Those great interests centering in New York City which are held to be responsible in part for the nomination of Judge Parker must confess themselves of small political consequence if they do not make

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powerful efforts to get for him the fifty-eight electoral votes of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut. Chairman Taggart, of the Democratic national committee, is conducting a determined campaign in his own State of Indiana. Mr. Davis, candidate for Vice-President, is relied upon to place in the Democratic column West Virginia, of which he is the most conspicuous citizen. These states, if won for Parker, together with the Democratic states of the South and the border states that are usually Democratic, would give victory to the ticket. The chances of Democratic success in a few other states are not to be ignored, but it may be supposed that those already mentioned are mainly relied upon to furnish the winning list of electoral votes. Connecticut or West Virginia might perhaps be spared without disaster, votes from one or two small, uncertain states in the Far West taking their places. But the lack of a strong and positive issue makes the Democratic canvass, in the view of many, a somewhat vague performance. Even the powerful newspapers of New York that are supporting Judge Parker severely arraign the Democratic leaders, including their own candidate, for not displaying more vigor in their attacks on the high tariff and other Republican institutions. To an unprejudiced onlooker it might seem that a tactical error has been committed in making the campaign hinge so largely upon the personality of President Roosevelt. For there is no escaping the conclusion that a remarkably large number of persons of all political parties are warm admirers of the nation's present chief executive.

Age as a Political Issue

Henry G. Davis was born in 1823. At that time James Monroe was President of the United States, George IV. was king of England, Louis XVIII. was king of France. A man of active life and vast business interests who won distinction a good many years ago as a United States Senator from West Virginia, Mr. Davis has become in his eighty-second year the candidate of the Democratic party for Vice-President. The object of electing a man to that office every four years is to provide for the uninterrupted administration of national affairs in the event of the death of the President. Five of the last twelve Presidents chosen by the people died in office and their terms were filled out by the Vice-Presidents. At the close of the next national administration Mr. Davis will be eighty-six. The question very properly has arisen as to whether or not a man as old as he could discharge in an efficient manner the heavy duties of President. No reflection is cast upon this estimable man by discussing his fitness to perform at more than fourscore years the labor of the hardest worked public officer of high rank in the world. The general experience of mankind indicates that to pronounce him fit for this great task is to declare him a phenomenal survival of the blighting effects of four-fifths of a century of life. But suppose we admit the exact truth of everything the admiring friends of Mr. Davis say in regard to his strength of mind and body. Suppose that at eighty-two or at eighty-six he should prove himself a President of exceptional ability. Under these conditions his administration still would be a period of doubt and uncertainty. The public would expect him speedily to pay the debt of nature, no matter how many years of active life might remain to him. The results of this condition of affairs would be unfortunate in many respects. All administrative policies would be provisional from the public's point of view, because of the universal belief that death or incapacity must speedily bring about a change of Presidents. Signs of senility would be sought for in every public and private act of the chief executive. Quite regardless of any effect which such comments as these may be thought to have upon the minds of voters, one feels that it is a duty to censure publicly the recklessness and folly of the persons responsible for the nomination of a man of eighty-one to a position which may require his assumption of the grave cares resting upon the President of the United States.

Senator Smoot as a Political Boss

When Apostle Smoot was elected to the United States Senate, it was freely predicted that this was the first move on the part of the Mormon Church to control absolutely the politics of Utah.

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THE BULL RUN BATTLEFIELD AS IT LOOKS TO-DAY

Subsequent events seem to have justified that prediction. Last spring in the municipal election in Salt Lake City, which is supposed to be strongly Republican, a Mormon Democrat was elected over a Republican Gentile of excellent record. The council which was elected contained nine Republicans and six Democrats, but eight of these were Mormons and seven Gentiles. Smoot has gradually assumed absolute dictatorship of the Republican party in Utah. The present governor of Utah, Wells, is a Mormon, but it appears that he has not been subservient enough to the Church and so he is to be displaced. Smoot brought out as his personal candidate John G. Cutler, a business associate and a faithful Mormon, a man without experience in politics. He was nominated over Wells, August 25, after one of the bitterest fights Utah has ever known. The day after the convention a great ratification meeting was announced for Salt Air. The meeting was so palpably a failure that the announced program was entirely abandoned. The *Tribune*, the leading morning paper of Salt Lake City and always Republican, calls it a "frost" and apparently will bolt the ticket. It is not impossible that the old Liberal party, which flourished previous to 1890, will be reorganized, with United States Senator Thomas Kearns in the lead. In the days when Utah was a territory the Liberals were the anti-Mormons who were opposed to the People's or Mormon party. In 1890, when the Liberals won both in Salt Lake City and Ogden, the Mormons succeeded in effecting a reorganization along national party lines and ever since have dominated Utah politics, because as they divided and went into both parties they can "flop" to either side and always win. All of which is held by many to show that a Mormon in politics is neither a Republican nor a Democrat, but always a Mormon.

The Manassas Maneuvers

The army maneuvers conducted at Manassas, Virginia, during September, were the most extensive since the Civil War. Two opposing "armies" of about fifteen thousand men each, made up of regulars and state militia, spent two weeks in the playing of a great war game involving the exercise of modern strategy on the part of the commanding officers

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THE SIGNAL CORPS AUTOMOBILE AT THE MANASSAS MANEUVERS

and of many of the exertions of actual warfare on the part of the men. Occurring almost exactly forty-two years after the second battle of Bull Run, the maneuvers were based to some extent on the strategic problems of that great conflict. Thorough preparations were made for the event, and in such matters as transporting large bodies of men in a short time, pitching and moving camp, providing subsistence, and maintaining field telegraphs and signal service the maneuvers showed the result of the great progress made by the War Department since the Spanish War. The latest improvements were tested as they can not be on a parade ground. Particular interest was shown in the signal service automobile, a high-power machine adapted to field usage, carrying telegraph apparatus and poles, signal flags, etc., and a detachment of men. The maneuvers were under the charge of General Corbin, and the opposing armies of "blues" and "browns" were commanded by General Grant and General Bell.

World Politics

The Russo-Japanese War. The Navies

The Russian navy has become almost a negligible quantity for the Japanese. What with the scattering and smashing that resulted from Admiral Wittsoeft's desperate dash to escape with his vessels from Port Arthur on August 10, Russia no longer has enough effective warships at any one place in the far eastern waters to be called a squadron. The Muscovite vessels that made that dash for liberty comprised six battleships, four cruisers and a small destroyer flotilla. Admiral Wittsoeft and most of the officers on his flagship, the Czarevitch, were killed. The Czarevitch reached Tsing-Chou almost a wreck. The cruiser Askold and the destroyer Grosovoi took refuge in Shanghai, where they have since been disarmed and put out of commission by Russia to avoid international complications. The cruiser Novik reached the same port, but fled two days later, only to be caught and sunk by Admiral Kamimura's fleet at Korsakovsk, Sakhalin, August 20. The destroyer Rye-

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ARMY ENGINEERS SURVEYING FOR THE MANASSAS MANEUVERS

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DINNER TIME IN THE ENGINEERS' CAMP AT MANASSAS

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shitelni was captured at Chefu. The battleships Retvisan and Pobieda returned badly damaged to Port Arthur together with the Poltava, Peresviet and Sevastopol. On August 23 the Sevastopol struck a mine in Port Arthur waters and the bow was submerged before she was towed into the inner harbor. The next day two Russian destroyers struck mines in the outer harbor. One sank and the other was with difficulty towed back into the inner harbor. The Russian gunboat Otvajni was sunk at Liautieshan on August 18. On August 14 Admiral Kamimura succeeded in catching the Vladivostok squadron which he had pursued in vain from the beginning of the war. He sank the Rurik, and though the Rossia and Gromoboi escaped to Vladivostok once more, they were so badly crippled that they are not likely to do any more damage to ocean traffic. In all this fighting the Japanese ships sustained almost no injury.

The Siege of Port Arthur

The siege of Port Arthur continues with unabated vigor. General Stoessel still offers a stubborn resistance, but since General Kuropatkin's defeat at Liaoyang the fortress has clearly been fighting against fate. General Stoessel refused to comply with Japanese demand for the stronghold on August 17. Then the islanders made a furious assault, lasting five days, taking the forts at Peiyushan, Itseshan, Palichwang and Takushan. The town of Port Arthur no longer exists except as a mass of ruins: all the houses, trees, docks and wharves have been demolished. A chain of hills surmounted by forts is all that the name Port Arthur now signifies. The Japanese have been bringing heavy guns from Japan, which are no longer needed for coast defense there, to train on the Port Arthur forts.

The Battle of Liaoyang

The long-expected battle of Liaoyang was, from the number of men engaged and the number killed and wounded, almost the greatest in history. For twelve days it raged between about two hundred thousand Russians and two hundred and forty thousand Japanese. The islanders lost, according to their own reports, twenty-five thousand killed and wounded. The Muscovite loss must have been much greater. Though Kuropatkin was not captured, he was disastrously defeated, and retreated in considerable disorder to Mukden. Kuropatkin drew his lines in a semicircle east, south and west of Liaoyang. Field-marshal Marquis Oyama was in command of the combined armies of Kuroki, Nozu and Oku, who commanded respectively the Japanese right, center and left. The preliminary skirmishing began, August 24, at Liandiansian, fifty miles southeast of Liaoyang. Gradually the whole line became engaged, extending westward from Liandiansian forty miles to Anshanchan, and northeastward from Liandiansian nearly seventy miles to the Taitze River. The Russians fought with the stubborn bravery that, as a nation, they have always shown in defensive fighting; but they could not withstand the superior intelligence and aggressive daring of the Nipponese. The Muscovites gradually retired northward, abandoning successively Liandiansian, Anshanchan, Anping, and finally, September 4, retreating from Liaoyang and the fortifications along the north bank of the Taitze River. There was a hot pursuit along the railroad toward Mukden. Kuropatkin and the main body of his army reached the prepared fortifications at Mukden September 7, narrowly escaping Oyama's swift flanking movements. A small rear guard of Russians was left at Yentai, about thirty miles south of Mukden. Kuropatkin foiled all efforts to cut the railroad in his flight. Long and bloody as this battle was it was not decisive, but it marked a great triumph of Japanese bravery and intelligence and the western methods they have adopted. It is 260 miles from Mukden to Harbin. After such a defeat it will require consummate generalship for Kuropatkin to cover this distance without being cut off by the flanking movements of his pursuers.

The Czarevitch

Shortly after midday, on August 12, Czarina Alexandra Feodorovna gave birth to a son who, if he lives, will reign as Emperor of all the Russias, with the name of Alexis II. He will be

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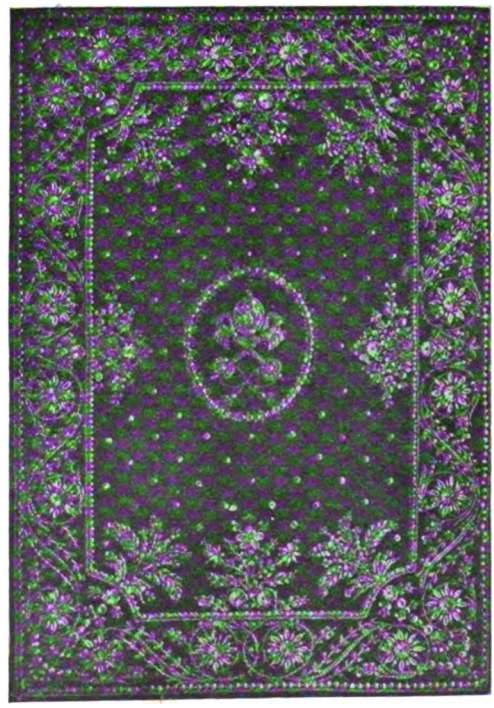
the nineteenth ruler of the dynasty founded by Michael Romanoff in 1613. Until the birth of little Alexis Nikolaievitch, who was christened with impressive ceremonies at the Church of the Peterhof Palace, September 24, the heir presumptive to the Russian throne was Grand Duke Michael, brother of the present Emperor. The right of females to the succession was abolished by a special decree of Emperor Paul, in 1797, after four Empresses had occupied the throne of Romanoff. The advent of a direct male heir to the throne causes some satisfaction in Russia, as it seemingly weakens the security of the tyrannical bureaucracy of grand dukes and ministers and makes it possible for Czar Nicholas II. to perpetuate the liberal reforms he has instituted.

The Czar's Reforms

The Czarevitch is heir to a liberal policy by which Nicholas is endeavoring to transform the Russian government from an oppressive despotism into a benevolent despotism. He is also heir to terrible conditions which the administrative tyranny and corruption of ages have caused to accumulate throughout the benighted empire. On the occasion of the christening of his son, Czar Nicholas issued a long manifesto which is called the most sweeping act of reform and mercy since the emancipation of the serfs. It grants a general amnesty to all political offenders not charged with murder, and provides for a general reduction in sentences for common-law offenses. It abolishes corporal punishment among rural classes and for first offenses among the sea and land forces. It remits arrears owing to the state for the purchases of land and other direct imposts. It remits the fines imposed upon the Jewish communes in the cases of Jews avoiding military service. It remits the fines imposed upon the rural and urban communes of Finland that refused to submit to military subscription in 1902 and 1903; and also appropriates $1,500,000 from the state funds for the purpose of forming an inalienable fund for the benefit of the landless people of Finland. It further grants amnesty to those Finlanders who have emigrated without authorization. Of course, the public press of Russia takes the Emperor's word for it that this manifesto is simply a thank-offering resulting from the promptings of his heart. The world at large regards this act of ostensible kindness as the making of a virtue of necessity. The national distress is intensified by the enormous cost of an unsuccessful war. Popular discontent was expressed in the recent assassination of several high officials. With disaster following disaster in the Far East, widespread mutterings of revolution at home can not pass unheeded. However, the provisions of the manifesto are not such as to promote permanent good. They can only give the masses a taste of better conditions and thus increase discontent.

The Concordat in Danger

Disestablishment of the church in France is now freely discussed as a possibility of the near future. The French government claims that the Vatican has violated the Concordat in summoning to Rome the bishops of Laval and Dijon, and also in the appointment of bishops



THE PORTFOLIO CONTAINING THE CONCORDAT

In this cover the French government's copy of the famous contract with Rome is kept

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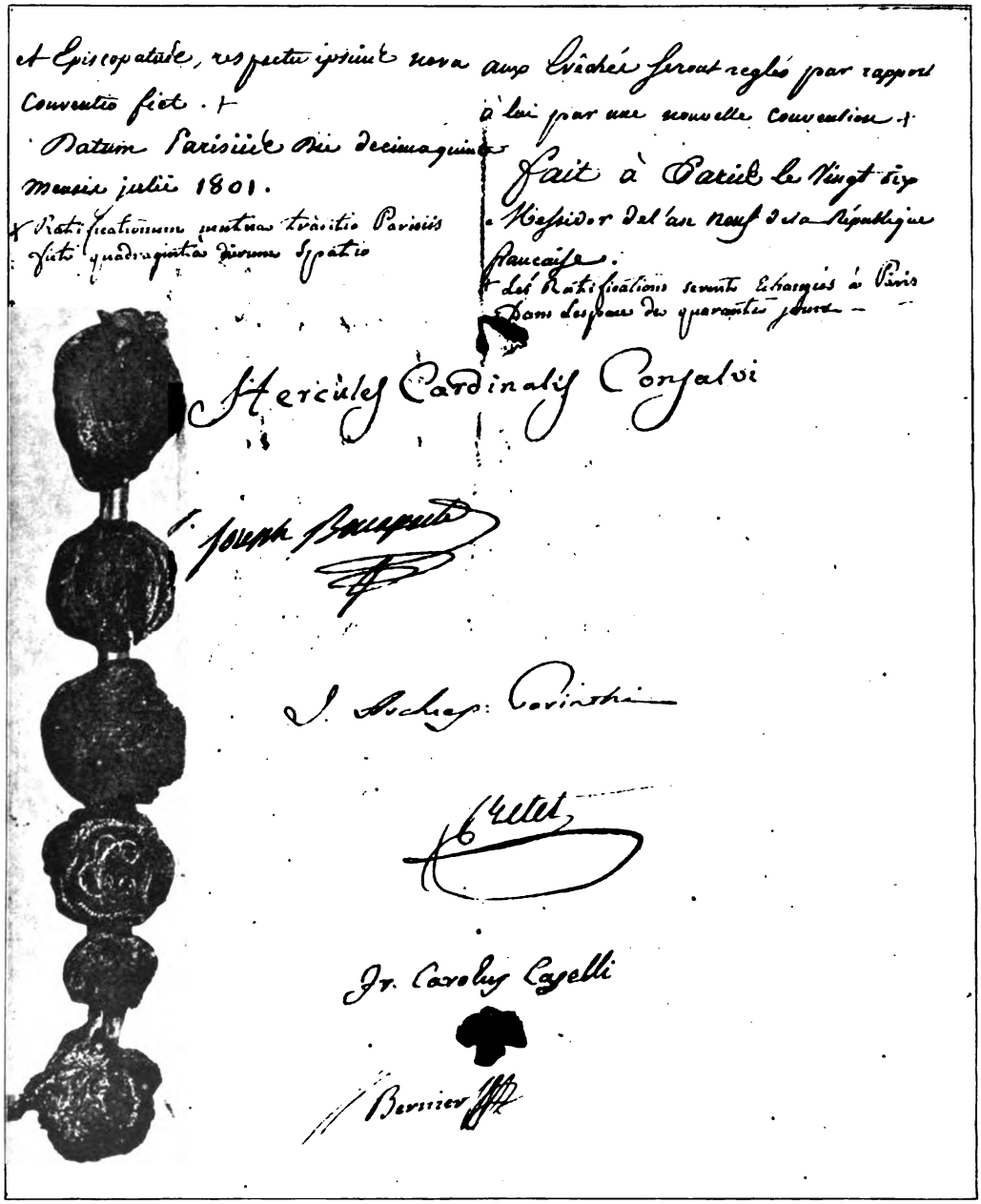

et Episcopatûsque, respectu ipsius novæ Conventio fiet. +

Datum Parisiis die decimaquinta mensis julii 1801.

+ Ratificationum mutuæ traditio Parisiis fiet quadraginta dierum spatio

aux Evêchés seront réglés par rapport à lui par une nouvelle Convention. +

Fait à Paris le Vingt six Messidor de l'an neuf de la République française.

+ Les Ratifications seront échangées à Paris dans l'espace de quarante jours —

Hercules Cardinalis Consalvi

J. Joseph Bonaparte

J. Archiep: Corinthi

Crétet

Jo. Carolus Caselli

Bernier

THE PORT OF SMYRNA, RECENTLY VISITED BY AMERICAN WARSHIPS

hostile to the administration; and since the Vatican refuses to retract or to promise a change of policy, diplomatic relations have been broken off. A bill for disestablishment has already been drafted by a committee of the Chamber of Deputies, forbidding all expenditure of public money for the maintenance of religious worship and the gratuitous use of public buildings. It provides that public buildings now used for religious purposes, which were erected before the Concordat, may be occupied for ten years at a fair rental, while buildings erected since the Concordat are to be transferred to associations to be constituted for the maintenance of worship. The more radical party in the church welcomes the prospect of disestablishment, because of the many limitations which the Concordat has imposed upon the policy of the Church in France. The loss of the $800,000 a year, however, which the French government now pays for the salaries of bishops and clergy will be seriously felt by the people, who will doubtless be expected to make up the most of this deficit. It may be that the actual termination of the Concordat is still some years in the future, but Premier Combes has moved so rapidly in his anti-ecclesiastical campaign of the past few years that a great and speedy transformation is not unlikely. The Concordat itself, a contract between Pius X and Napoleon, signed in 1801, has had vast influence on the history of France during the past century. In return for the state support promised, the Church agreed to surrender its control over the appointment, dismissal and public acts of the bishops. This famous document is still preserved in duplicate at Paris and Rome. A facsimile of the last page, with the signatures of the papal and French plenipotentiaries, and the rich velvet cover in which the French copy is kept, are reproduced here from *L'Illustration.*

Turkey and the United States

A few weeks ago the relations between the United States and Turkey were seriously strained. Characteristically the Porte had promised and delayed fulfilment. The status of American schools, of American property holders, and of American citizens generally throughout the Turkish Empire, was decidedly in-

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ferior to that of citizens of other powers and capable of working large injustice and suffering. Minister Leishman was unable to gain more than general promises from the Sultan that America should be given justice. The presence of a strong fleet in Smyrna, however, brought about an apparent change of heart, and Washington was informed that these promises would have immediate fulfilment. The incident apparently was closed. Up to the time of writing, however, the public has not been informed in what way the promises are to be kept, or what material gains American citizens have won. The situation is far graver than those unacquainted with Turkish affairs imagine. The only powers that are really respected by the Turks are those with whom they have fought. We can not believe that it will be necessary to go to war in order to place American citizens on a proper footing in the Turkish Empire, but, on the other hand, we do not believe that diplomacy unsupported by naval display will amount to much. For the next few months the presence of a fleet in the eastern Mediterranean waters is demanded as a means of impressing upon the Turkish authorities, both low and high, the conviction that the United States is not a third-rate power to be cajoled into good nature.

Art and Letters

Whistler's Peacock Room

The famous peacock room in Leyland House, London, decorated by Whistler, has probably aroused the curiosity of those interested and those not interested in such matters more than any other scheme of decoration of our own time. It was such a startling and determined departure from the accepted rules that even those who knew only of the extraordinary personality of the designer heard of it. It has now come into prominence again because the decorations have been purchased by an American and are to be brought to this country. Not long ago the central panel sold for $25,000, so it can be imagined the room brought a high figure. The work very plainly shows the influence of the Japanese, but is worked out on lines guided only by the genius and instinct of the designer. It is a monument to the courage of Whistler's convictions.

From *The Studio* London

WHISTLER'S FAMOUS "PEACOCK ROOM"

Chicago Artists' Exhibition

The summer exhibition of the works of Chicago artists, at the Chicago Art Institute, is made up of pictures which have been exhibited before and is not remarkable for extraordinary excellence, but is interesting for the even quality of the available material. Possibly the work that shows the most promise is by the young artist John C. Johansen, who has already distinguished himself. His bold and decorative composition, "Threshold of Night," is a landscape marked by a quality of vitality. A picture that the visitor could not pass without noticing, for the story it tells, is "The Birthday" by Cora F. Freer. The treatment of the candlelight on the faces of the two little girls is admirable. The three cattle pictures by Eugenie F. Glaman put her among the animal painters of the first rank. Of the portraits, "The Old Gown," by Frederick W. Freer, is noticeable for delicacy and pictorial quality, and the pastel, "A Woman in Black," by Pauline

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Palmer, for luminous effect. A good marine, by Edgar S. Cameron, called "Dawn," shows a splendid expanse of morning sky and ocean, and in the far distance the three caravels of Columbus, bound for the unknown West.

The Congresses at St. Louis

The success of the congresses at the Columbian Exposition in Chicago argues well for that of those being held at St. Louis. Like everything else at St. Louis, the congresses are to be the largest ever held. The director of the congresses is Mr. Howard J. Rogers, and the Administrative Board consists of Presidents Butler, of Columbia; Harper, of Chicago; Jesse, of Missouri; Pritchard, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, together with Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, and Frederick J. V. Skiff, director of the Field Columbian Museum. The actual administration of the congresses, however, lies in the hands of a committee composed of Simon Newcomb, formerly of the U. S. Naval Observatory; Hugo Muensterberg, of Harvard, and Albion W. Small, of the University of Chicago. The congresses are arranged in seven divisions, under each of which are a number of departments, in all number-

"THRESHOLD OF NIGHT," BY JOHN C. JOHANSEN

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"THE BIRTHDAY," BY CORA F. FREER
Exhibition of Works by Chicago Artists

ing twenty-four. Each of these departments is subdivided into sections. Altogether there are several hundred persons represented on the program, including some of the most prominent scholars of Europe and Japan. The meetings are so arranged as not to conflict with each other, and there is every reason for expecting that they will be of great interest and value. It is a little to be regretted that the meetings come just when most universities and colleges will be beginning their fall sessions. At the same time the remarkable list of names on the program ought to insure large attendance. It is not likely that it will ever again be possible for Americans to hear in one place papers from such men as Harnack, Bryce, Lamprecht, Brugmann, DeVries, Turner, Bury, Mahaffey, Nicholson, Brunètiere, Réville, Janet, Tarde, Pfleiderer, Delitzsch and Van t'Hoff.

The World of Sport

Filipinos as Athletes

Not long since, Dr. Hager, Chief of the Executive Board of the Educational Department of the Insular Bureau, requested Mr. Charles J. P. Lucas to undertake the athletic training of the Filipinos. With the exception of the Visayans, who declined to mingle with the other tribes, the Filipinos took the matter up eagerly. Almost without exception they have shown great facility in the unaccustomed sports. Cochero, son of the Sultan of Ambula, though only five feet three inches tall, has cleared five feet in the high jump, and at a standing broad jump has cleared ten feet nine inches. In jumping he lifts his legs from the knees, holding them close to his thighs, and, when about to land, straightens them out, landing upon his feet in an almost perfectly upright position. The Moros are good at the sprints, a boy of

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THE RUINS OF EPHESUS, ASIA MINOR

Smyrna, where the American fleet was recently ordered, has an interest for most people because it is near the ruins of Ephesus. These views show the market place and a portion of one of the acqueducts of that former metropolis

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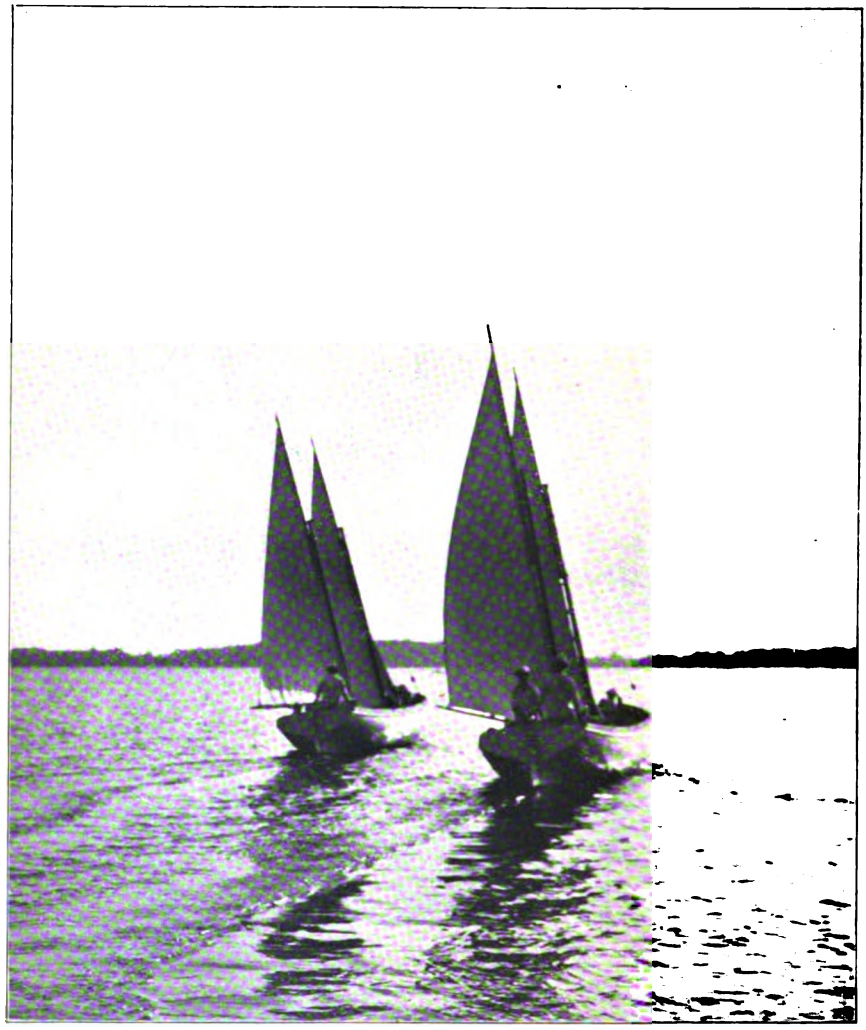

TEACHING BOYS TO BE SAILORS
A Characteristic Scene at a Naval Summer School

eighteen, standing five feet one-half inch, with only three days' training, ran one hundred yards in 11 3-5 seconds, and that, too, barefooted. The same boy, Sumdide, has made the 120-yard low hurdle in 18 3-5 seconds, although jumping the hurdle rather than taking it in a stride. The Igorots are the best long-distance runners among the Filipinos. One man ran two miles under eleven minutes. They are also good in the shot put. One member of the tribe, without previous training, threw a sixteen-pound weight thirty-five feet six inches. The Negritos are great tree climbers, but otherwise their athletic abilities are of unknown quantity. The Tagalos may be able to accomplish something in the track events and jumps, but, like the other Filipinos, are too light to succeed in the weights. Altogether the Moros seem to possess the largest athletic capacity.

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RIGOLLY AND HIS AUTOMOBILE. HOLDER OF THE WORLD'S RECORD FOR THE KILOMETER
This machine covered a kilometer (three-fifths of a mile) at the rate of 103.5 miles an hour

The Olympic Games

In the events of the Third Olympiad, which was held at the World's Fair, St. Louis, throughout the week ending September 3, all the world championships were won by Americans except three. The Marathon race was won by an Englishman, Thomas J. Hicks, of Cambridge, whose record was three hours, twenty-eight minutes and fifty-three seconds. Perikles Kakousis, of Athens, Greece, won the bar-bell event, by raising a bar-bell weighing 246 pounds. E. Dismarteau, of Montreal, Canada, won in throwing the fifty-six pound weight, his distance being thirty-four feet, four inches. The other world championships were won as follows:

EVENT.	WINNER.	CLUB.	RECORD.
60-meter dash	Archie Hahn	Milwaukee A. C.	0:07
400-meter run	Harry Hillman	N. Y. A. C.	0:49 1-5
16-pound hammer	John Flanagan	G. N. Y. I. A. A.	168 ft. 1 in.
Standing broad jump	Ray Ewry	N. Y. A. C.	11 ft. 4⅞ in.
2,500-meter run, steeplechase	James D. Lightbody	Chicago A. A.	7:39 3-5
Running high jump	S. S. Jones	N. Y. A. C.	5 ft. 11 in.
200-meter dash	Archie Hahn	Milwaukee A. C.	0:21 3-5
Standing high jump	Ray Ewry	N. Y. A. C.	4 ft. 11 in.
400-meter hurdle	Harry Hillman	N. Y. A. C.	0:53
16-pound shot	Ralph Rose	Chicago A. A.	48 ft. 3 in.
800-meter run	James D. Lightbody	Chicago A. A.	1:56
200-meter hurdle	Harry Hillman	N. Y. A. C.	0:24 3-5
Running broad jump	Meyer Prinstein	G. N. Y. I. A. A.	24 ft. 1 in.
Running hop, skip, jump	Meyer Prinstein	G. N. Y. I. A. A.	47 ft.
International tug-of-war	Milwaukee A. C.	Milwaukee	1:44 3-5
Discus throw	M. J. Sheridan	G. N. Y. I. A. A.	128 ft. 10½ in.
1,500-meter run	James D. Lightbody	Chicago A. A.	4:05 2-5
100-meter run	Archie Hahn	Milwaukee A. C.	0:11
110-meter hurdle	Fred W. Schule	Milwaukee A. C.	0:16
Pole vault	Charles E. Dvorak	Chicago A. A.	11 ft. 6 in.
Three standing jumps	Ray Ewry	N. Y. A. C.	34 ft. 7¼ in.
Dumb-bell competition	Oscar Ostoff	Milwaukee A. C.	48 points
Four-mile relay team	New York A. C.	New York	21:17 4-5

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The smashing of world records was astounding. Ralph Rose in the shot-put, M. J. Sheridan in the discus throw, James D. Lightbody in the long-distance runs, John Flanagan in the hammer throw, Ray C. Ewry in the standing jumps, Archie Hahn in the sixty and two hundred meter dashes and Hicks in the Marathon race. The result of the struggle for first honors turned on the international relay race, the last event on the long program. According to official figures, the final standing of the first four clubs is as follows: New York Athletic Club, sixty-three points; Chicago Athletic Association, fifty-nine points; Milwaukee Athletic Club, forty-six; Greater New York Irish Athletic Club, thirty-one.

The Religious World

The Archbishop of Canterbury

A visit to America of the head of the Church of England is an event of prime importance in church circles. Dr. Davidson, Archbishop of Canterbury, who is in the United States to attend the general conference of the Protestant Episcopal Church at Boston in October, is not only the primate of England, but also a man who commands the highest respect for his scholarly attainments and his public spirit. One of his last acts before leaving England was to offer his friendly services to the United Free Church of Scotland in settling the difficult problem presented by the recent decision of the House of Lords. He was also one of the leading opponents in the House of Lords of the licensing bill recently adopted by Parliament, which practically gives saloonkeepers a vested interest for a period of years. During his stay in America he spends some time in Montreal, Quebec and other Canadian cities, and will visit several cities in the eastern states before attending the conference. He is entertained by Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan. His coming will undoubtedly promote closer relations between American Episcopalians and the mother church.

RT. REV. RANDALL DAVIDSON
Archbishop of Canterbury

The United Free Church Case

Interest in the unique situation created by the Free Church decision in Great Britain continues unabated. We present in this issue of THE WORLD TO-DAY a full explanation of the matter by our Scottish correspondent, Mr. Cuthbert Lennox. At first there was a disposition in some quarters to make light of the whole affair, as too preposterous to have any real bearing on the future of the United Free Church. It was assumed that the little band of Highland ministers, led by the doughty Moderator McQueen, would hasten to make terms with the vanquished majority, satisfied with having vindicated the principle for which they have contended. But if reports are to be trusted, these audacious champions of the older orthodoxy have no such intention, and seem not to realize the absurdity of the situation in which they have placed themselves, with thousands of churches to maintain and several great schools to administer. The general feeling in Scotland is that while some way out of the difficulty will undoubtedly be discovered, either by appeal to Parliament or by some new judicial ruling, a period of uncertainty and paralyzed activity can not be avoided. American interest in the matter is not limited to sympathy with the perplexed authorities and members of the United Free Church, but includes also a fresh examination of American judicial precedents in analo-

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gous cases. Our courts are reluctant to interfere in ecclesiastical controversies, but where questions of breach of trust are involved in disputes over the control of real estate they can not always refuse relief. As between a protesting minority claiming to represent the original body and a majority which admits departure from the theological views of the founders, the decisions vary according to the phraseology of the instrument by which the trust was created. But in cases where the testator has merely required that a church or institution shall continue loyal to the faith and practice of a given denomination, the general tenor of American rulings has been liberal, allowing a considerable measure of latitude and change as a natural consequence of the lapse of time. In these days men who leave money or real estate to churches are generally too wise to attempt to bind future generations by specific requirements as to creed, not always because they would not prefer to do so, but rather because they have learned that such attempts are nearly always in vain.

PIERRE MARIE WALDECK-ROUSSEAU
French Ex-Premier

Christianity in Japan

A story went the rounds of the papers a few months ago that a great public mass-meeting was held in Tokyo to consider the adoption of Christianity as a state religion in Japan. Nothing is too absurd to find credence in some quarters, and the report was commented on as very significant. It now appears that there was not even a basis of fact underlying the rumor. Not only would it be impossible for the government of Japan to adopt a state religion under the constitution, not only is there no new or unusual turning toward Christianity on the part of Japanese statesmen, but the alleged mass-meeting never was held. At least religious leaders in Tokyo write that they heard nothing of it. It is true that for a number of years Christianity has been making steady though relatively small progress among the leading men of Japan. There are always a few Christians in the Diet, and among army and navy officers. The case of Admiral Uriu is familiar. A considerable number of statesmen and military men, not themselves Christians, have Christian wives and look with favor on the missionary work. These facts are encouraging to those who hope for the ultimate Christianization of this dominant nation of the Far East; but it is not the missionaries who spread rose-colored reports calculated to exaggerate the actual numerical strength of Christianity in the empire. They are careful to impress upon the churches at home that all that has been done is merely as a foundation for the great task that now lies before the churches of Japan in evangelizing their nation. The indirect fruits of Christianity in Japan can hardly be overestimated, and were never more evident than in the self-restraint and humanity shown during the present war.

M. Waldeck-Rousseau.

The late ex-premier of France, Waldeck-Rousseau, was one of the early leaders in the campaign against ecclesiastical education. As a radical he did what he could to lessen the power of the Church. Yet toward the end of his career he seemed to draw back from the more extreme policy of Combes, which is now rending France in twain.

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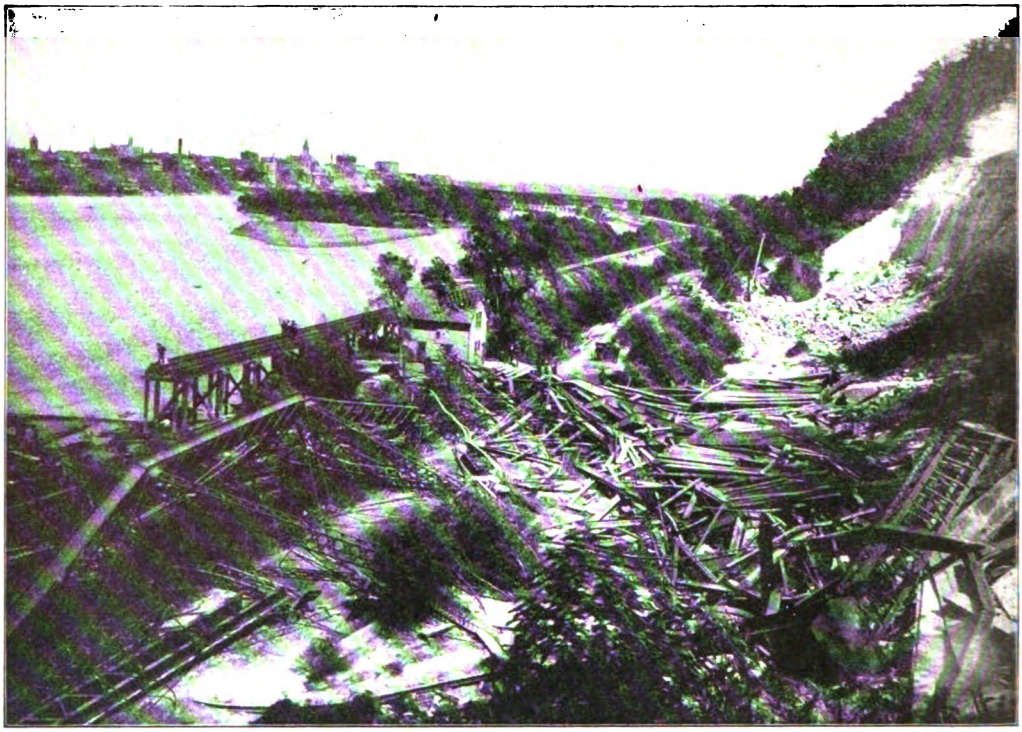

RUINS OF THE HIGH BRIDGE AT ST. PAUL

A FRAME RESIDENCE LEVELED BY THE STORM
The Disastrous Effects of the St. Paul Tornado, August 21, 1904

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PACKINGTOWN DURING THE STRIKE

PHOTOGRAPHS WITHOUT A CAMERA

BY

ERNEST POOLE

AUTHOR OF "THE DISAPPEARING PUBLIC"

Outside the Yards

TEN thousand strikers were listening to Michael Donnelly. The big picnic grove had grown suddenly silent. The light of the yellow darkening West showed faces back under the trees as far as you could see. Now and then one moved impatiently to get a better view. Now and then the wind swayed the willow branches perilously heavy with clusters of small boys who yelled excitedly when the wind blew, and were sternly ordered to keep quiet. Now and then a baby cried in the arms of a tired mother, tiptoeing to get a look at the speaker. There were hundreds of wee girls in white dresses and bright ribbons who had marched all the morning under banners that said: "Give our fathers living wages!" and "Bring mother home from the factory that we may have her care!" There were hundreds of young men and girls warm from the dancing pavilions; there were hundreds of old men and women straining for a view of their sons' leader. It was a huge family group of Americans, Germans and Irish. A family backing a strike. Ten thousand lives bound together by an ideal.

Donnelly was speaking simply. The men before him were mainly the five thousand skilled workers who had struck to protect the unskilled fifteen thousand below them.

"Men," he was saying, "you know their condition as well as I. You know they make but thirty-five hours a week. At 18½ cents an hour that means only $6.50 a week. The new wage which the trust now proposes, 16½ cents per hour, means only $5.50 a week. No American family can live decently on that wage, and if families are to be forced to learn such wretched ways of living, then our whole community must suffer by it. For we are all together. Their cause is our cause. They are human beings like ourselves, they are as good as we, and they have as much right to a wage scale for their labor as we have for ours. We had better all go down in defeat together than accept agreements for ourselves when agreements are denied these others. It is the whole community that we stand for. We want decent homes for all; we want health for all our babies, the babies whose death rate was five times the rate in the Lake Shore Wards; we don't want their mothers to spend their days in the canning factories, we want them at home; we want our boys and girls in school; we want better living, not for some of us, but for us all."

A community standing for an ideal! In my case the impression of that evening was only deepened in the six weeks that followed, and I daily felt the pulse of the neighborhood. All day there poured into the Settlement a stream of wives and mothers, whose daily worries and hardships had been doubled by the strike.

"The commissary store ran out of things at three o'clock, I had been in line since ten, but I didn't get to the head of the line in time, and to-morrow's Sunday."

"The baby's sick, and the store don't give no medicine."

A hundred troubles arose. Suffering came. But not a woman had a word to say against the strike.

"It's awful hard on us, but it can't be helped. The men is right. There ain't no other way."

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Some laughed. "Ye should have seen Mike that first morning!" cried one motherly Irish woman. "The poor man was white as a ghost. 'Mary,' he says, 'I'm out.' 'Out av what?' I asks. 'Av me job,' he says, 'an' God knows what we'll do now wid six kids to feed.' Wull, I simply burst out laughin' an' I pushed Mike on to the lounge, an' I says to young Tim, 'Tim, get your daddie's pipe, not the shmall clay divil, but the big corn cob!' He brings it, an' I says to Mike, 'Now, fill it up and shmoke till mornin'. I've been wantin' a picnic since the fourth of July. We'll have wan in Jackson Park to-morrer!' "

Some wept. One night I went with a settlement worker to a German tenement home around the corner to view its brand-new twins. They lay side by side asleep in a cradle, two living pink things, each one foot long and about five inches wide. The woman seemed to see much more. The strike was forgotten. The young mother grew proud till her eyes shone. The giant of a father grinned delightedly and puffed his pipe. Later we put away the twins, and, sitting down, talked of the strike. The husband had been a watchman in the Yards.

"I couldn't stay in," he told us. "Ye see, I've always lived amongst the boys here, I've always been with 'em at work, and now when they're come to the biggest fight of their lives, I couldn't go against 'em. I couldn't stand around an' look at the nigger scabs that's come in their places. It wouldn't be right nohow. Bess feels like I do."

I had been watching her. She was only twenty-three, frail and weak from her recent suffering. She lacked the courage of health. Her eyes, anxious and frightened, were fixed on the cradle. Twice they had filled suddenly as she bent over the twins, hastily turning her back.

"Bess feels like I do," said her husband.

Bess smiled. "Of course, I do. There ain't no other way," she said.

This was the attitude of the skilled workers who struck to protect the others. The unskilled fifteen thousand were ignorant. They were immigrant Bohemians, Polish, Lithuanians and Slovaks. They had poured in from the most wretched quarters of old Europe. Most of them could neither read nor speak English, and even when Donnelly's speeches were told them by an interpreter there was much they could not clearly understand. And yet their attitude was unmistakable.

One afternoon, on some pretext, I entered a battered frame cottage near Whiskey Point. The cottage was one story high, but like most of the houses near by, its basement was crowded with two families and their boarders. The main floor and the basement together held twenty-three Slovaks and Poles. This was the standard of living at $6.50 a week. From the rear yard I climbed the rickety outside stairs and entered a room ten feet by twelve. Three tiny bedroom closets opened off one side. A stolid Slovak woman showed me to a soap box. I sat down, grew hopeless of conversation, and looked about me. I saw three big wooden trunks—two blue trunks and a red one, open and overflowing with discarded Slovak clothes; also two beds, a table, three chairs, a blue plaster Madonna, three pictures of saints, and one of the Sozodont Girl. She smiled endlessly down on eleven stolid, solemn faces, on the ten Slovaks and me. Unbroken silence. At last I conceived a piece of strategy.

"Strike?" I asked. Instantly one stolid face lightened. "Stay out!" he cried.

It was the ideal in its lowest terms. To these simple, ignorant people the labor union has shown a way up out of the *impasse* of immigrant labor. Slovaks, Lithuanians and Poles join the Irish and German locals. There first they learn to speak English, to debate, to discuss trusts, votes, rights and duties. Like a million other immigrants, they are learning to be Americans through the school of the labor union.

The union's increasing power over them here was shown by the orderly quiet that I saw everywhere during the strike in Packingtown. Late one night in the first week I met a group of Poles crowded round a placard on a telegraph pole. The placard was a union bulletin in five languages, ordering every unionist to stay at home, to keep out of mobs and violence. One tall Pole lit match after match close to the paper, while a short, fat Pole ran his finger along the words

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and read laboriously. The little flare of light showed a dozen faces intent and eager. "Violence—only—does—harm—to—our cause," he read slowly. In all unionism this is the hardest lesson to teach. It has been taught these immigrants with amazing success. For Packingtown, in the six weeks I studied it, was peaceable. The newspaper stories of violence were grossly exaggerated. At the local police station, where every act of violence must be recorded, I found that over three-fourths of the newspaper stories were absolutely without foundation.

So the community was controlled by the union. So, in the past four years, these inpouring races have been welded together. So the community has grasped the labor ideal and has proved it can hold to it through hardship.

In the Yards

One night I sat upon the roof of a shed in the yards. Below me was the nightly prize fight: a thousand negroes, Italians and Greeks were standing and tiptoeing in a huge ring five rows deep. A thousand pairs of eyes rolled and gleamed in the glare of the big arc light overhead. Six policemen shouldered and clubbed the ring into shape. Women shrieked at intervals; from the men rose one continuous roar. Suddenly the roar sharpened.

"Turk! Turk! mash he haid! Mash he haid!"

Turk, the Kansas City champion, had Tennessee Chick all but beaten. Turk's upper cut was working fearful havoc. Science was thrown to the winds. They clinched and then rolled, gripping each other out into the crowd. The policemen again beat the ring into shape and the fight went on.

Across the square on another shed squatted twenty chattering, laughing, gesticulating Italians. To my right, on top of a freight car, sat a negro and his girl, a loving silhouette against the big arc light behind them.

"Hooray fo' Kansas City! Mash he haid!" The Kansas City side of the ring went suddenly frantic. In vain the Tennessee negroes spurred on their champion; in vain Alabama and Mississippi joined in and yelled until throats seemed splitting. Chick's blows went wild; his steps became staggers.

"Mash he haid! Mash him, mash him!"

He staggered directly under my perch. Turk followed. The ring sagged in. Policemen clubbed right and left. Suddenly Chick dropped like a log. "One, two, three, four—" The timekeeper's voice was drowned and you could only see his lips moving. Still the endless chorus: "Mash he haid! Mash he haid!" Chick rose desperately on his elbows. "Eight. Nine." Chick fell weakly back. An instant later the timekeeper threw up his hand and the fight was over. The crowd swept in and Kansas City threw Turk upon its shoulders and bore him off in triumph to spend his $25 prize money. "Where dat whiskey man? Why ain't he round heah?" They passed the shed and disappeared round the corner.

I walked on through the crowd. Soon I saw one young negro seize another by the arm. "Say, Jim, wheah dat niggah woman gone?" One moment they consulted, chuckling, and then ran off. I followed close after and came into a dark alley. Here were sheds and empty freight cars; here were piles of boards and dark covered freight platforms; here were scores of negro women. The alley had been given an unprintable nickname.

Half way down the alley some negroes were singing. "They call themselves the Hog House Octette," said an old watchman. They were singing "My Old Kentucky Home." "They're fresh from South Clark Street," remarked the watchman. "Don't it beat the devil how a lot of coons can get together on swipe chords. Just listen to that!" The bass voices slip up and the tenors slid down, and both met in a rich plaintive chord which swelled louder and louder. "Don't it beat the devil," the old man repeated.

These were not the negroes upon whom rest the hopes of their race. Later on I saw their sleeping quarters. I slipped into a cellar entrance just behind a group of two negro men and three negro women. We walked through two cold passages, then up three flights of steep stairs. As we passed the second flight we were struck by hot, fetid air from above. Another

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flight and we entered the men's sleeping-room. I stopped short at the entrance. In New York I have been through the worst of the Bowery lodging-houses, but conditions here were more revolting. The big storeroom was packed with two hundred cots on which slept negroes, Greeks and Italians. Directly in front of me, on a low stretcher cot, lay a big negro sleeping heavily. He was absolutely nude. Beside him sat a negro man and woman sharing a bottle between them. The women who came up just before me had stopped here on their way to their own quarters. A score of other women passed through as I stood there.

"Greeks, dagoes and coons." So a policeman had described the crowds within the yards. In my five weeks' stay in the Stock Yards I had ample time to verify this impression. I went through the slaughter-houses. I watched the evening crowds pour out of the doors. I went through the long trains which took out thousands each night to outside quarters. And excepting the skilled workers, "the company men," I saw not ten per cent of Americans, Irish and Germans. My impression was corroborated by a score of other observers.

Has the great strike taught us anything of the spirit of labor? Three facts must be considered.

First. The meat strike opened 50,000 jobs in five or six of the leading American cities. At least 35,000 of these jobs were common labor and open for all to take.

Second. To fill these places the meat trust for five weeks made the most carefully planned attempt to secure strike breakers that has ever been made in the history of labor. Its agents were in every section of the country. Employers' Associations and Citizens' Alliances strained every power to help them. Other big employers gave their assistance. The National Canning Company sent far and wide to hire workmen for its factory and then turned them over to the packers. The trust offered free transportation and double wages, in some cases $5.00 a day.

Third. Hundreds of thousands of workingmen sorely needed those jobs. They had been out of work for months on account of the depression, and their families in many cases were severely suffering. Thousands of these men lived in the very cities where the meat strike was on. In spite of all this the trust could get only newly landed Greeks, Southern Italians and low-class negroes to fill the strikers' places. It is useless to argue that the better workingmen kept away simply from fear of being slugged. Negroes and Italians are not noted for their courage.

I have no philosophy to urge, but it seems to me reasonable to conclude that other workingmen are kept away on account of some social sense, some class loyalty. Was the meat strike an adequate test of this class consciousness? I can not say. If it was, then it has disclosed something which may have a vital bearing on every big labor struggle of the future.

The strike is lost. The demands the union made have all been refused. The trust has forced its thirty-five thousand unskilled workers from $6.50 to $5.50 a week. This winter in Packingtown old people and little children, the crippled, the sick, the feeble, mothers with babies to nurse and mothers with babies unborn—all these must suffer. Some of them will die. For the strike has failed.

The ideal lives on. The great mass of people obeyed their officers to the end. There was no stampede back to work, no desperate riots. The struggle ended not in rout, but in orderly retreat. The union has been saved. Thousands of men have met day by day and discussed the ideal of brotherhood for which they stand. This ideal is stronger than it ever was before.

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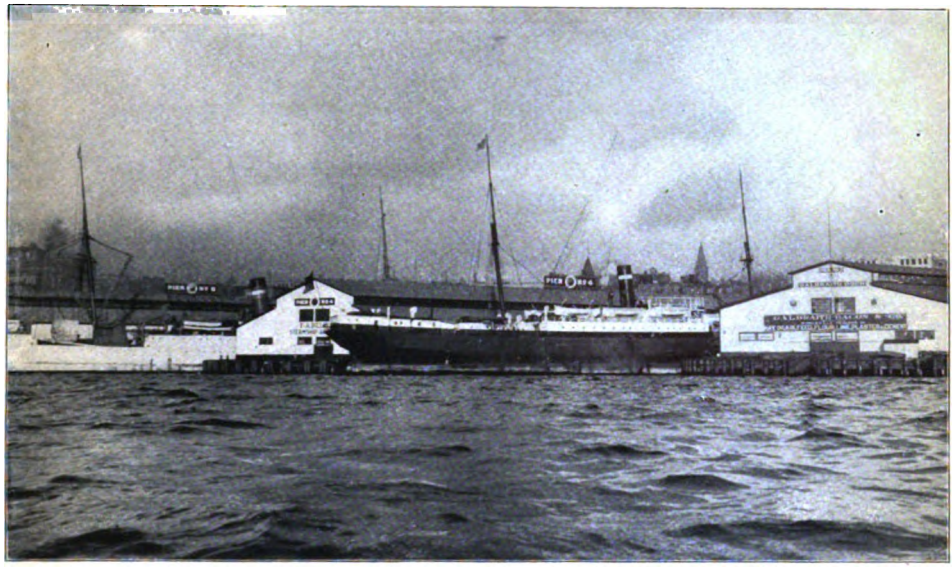

TRANSPACIFIC STEAMERS LOADING AT SEATTLE

OUR NEGLECTED TRADE WITH ASIA

BY

W. S. HARWOOD

AUTHOR OF "CALIFORNIA AS A WINTER RESORT"

JUST beyond the stretch of the blue Pacific, now sadly reddened by war, lie Japan, China, Siam, India. Each year these countries, and associated smaller countries of the Orient, do a foreign commerce estimated at from $1,500,000,000 to $2,000,000,000, fully two-thirds of which is in the nature of imports from outside countries. They have a population of at least eight hundred millions of people, more than one-half of all the inhabitants of the globe.

With these peoples we have always been at peace; to them we have been fairer friends than any other people of Caucasian blood; they are always negatively, and usually positively, our friends; and yet out of the enormous trade which they carry on with the world, we get a beggarly nine per cent.

A very large amount of the goods they buy they could as well buy from the United States, would buy of the United States if they had the chance. We are better situated to administer this vast trade than any other nation and better prepared to maintain it; we are nearer by thousands of miles than any other nation able satisfactorily to supply their needs; we have practically everything they want; we are always—as soon as the guns cool—a commercial nation; we have not yet dreamed of the possibilities of our resources from which to draw to feed and clothe the world.

And yet, notwithstanding all this, and notwithstanding the fact that in the year ending June 30, 1903, we sold abroad over $1,400,000,000 worth of our goods—the greatest business we ever did over our counters—yet what we sold to this vast Asiatic customer was only four and eleven-tenths per cent of our total trade. Four and eleven-tenths per cent of our trade, not quite $59,000,000, went to a customer who, by estimate, buys as much every year outside his own market as the total amount we sold the entire world.

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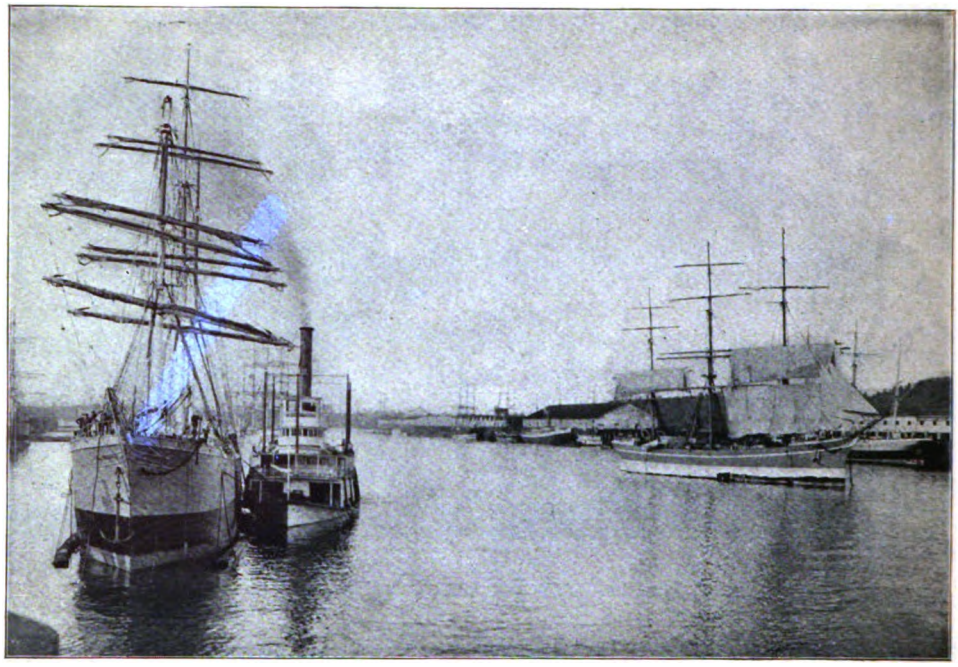

SHIPPING SCENE IN PORTLAND HARBOR

While there has been a growth in trade with the Orient, it has been pitiably small compared with the growth of our trade with European countries. At no time from 1870 to 1900 has the per cent of Asiatic exports risen to four per cent of our total exports, while it has never reached five per cent. It is a strange anomaly thus presented. The wonder steadily grows that we have not gone in and occupied the land. Still, as you study the situation with the scent of the Pacific in your nostrils, you forget for the moment the pitiably small share we have in this trade, as the enormous possibilities of the future come into clearer view, and as the rapidly increasing facilities for handling the trade are made apparent.

I stood one day on the streets of that most Asiatic of American cities, San Francisco, and watched the workmen far up in the dizzy heights of a great office building putting in place the steel timbers of its frame. Strange to say, much of the material for this vast structure had been shipped to this far coast past the steel mills of the United States from across the other ocean because the demand upon the home mills was so great the proprietors could not stop to consider the order.

Yoke with this the fact that our trade in general, including exports and imports, has now reached the enormous total of nearly $2,500,000,000 per year, and that our internal commerce has risen to the stupendous sum of $20,000,000,000 a year, and one begins to get some conception of the vastness of our commerce. And yet, with all this, here stands a customer at our back door, so to speak, buying over $1,000,000,000 worth of goods a year, and we let him go on to the neighbors.

But things are moving. Out on the Pacific coast, to borrow a humble word of perhaps doubtful legitimacy, they are not only moving, they are humping. I think it fair to say, that, to the average citizen of the eastern states, or of the central West, the Pacific coast is a region of mountains, forests, deserts, fruits and flowers, submerged in sunshine. Perhaps it does not occur to the easterner, however, that the entire Pacific coast is twelve thousand five hundred miles long, while,

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without counting Alaska, the coast line in our own country, from Cape Flattery on the north to San Diego on the south, is ten times as far as from New York to Washington, nearly three times as far as from New York to Chicago, twice as far as from New York to St. Louis—indeed, quite two-thirds the distance from New York to San Francisco. This extended coast line is the immediate gateway of the Orient.

The three states who guard this gate—California, Oregon and Washington—form a vast empire in themselves, larger than all New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, the two Virginias, Ohio, and Indiana combined; as large as all Germany, Belgium, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Denmark, with half of Norway thrown in for good measure.

Five port cities are rivals for the trade of the Pacific: San Francisco and San Diego in California, Portland in Oregon, Seattle and Tacoma in Washington, having a combined population rapidly approaching three-quarters of a million, while the three states are as rapidly approaching the three-million mark. Each one of these cities has superb natural harbor facilities. Each one is steadily improving its harbor, securing better wharfage, more convenient and commodious covered docks, ampler facilities for handling the slowly but steadily increasing coastwise and foreign trade. National aid is vigorously sought when harbor entrances need deepening, and improvements to these harbors increase yearly.

The rivalry between these cities is of the keenest American type. They are all deeply interested in the material development of their vicinage, the inducing of desirable eastern settlers to come in, the devising of new plans for the development of their fisheries, their fruits, their forests and their farms. But perhaps the most carefully nurtured plan among all their activities is the development of the trade of the Orient; in this they are entering heart and soul, each striving for honorable supremacy. Business and professional men give up valuable time to tedious conferences; every possible influence is brought to bear at the national capital to line up Senators, Congressmen and Presidents; commercial bodies give liberally for the furtherance of each new project.

It stirs the blood, this tremendous energy of these coast men, put forth to redeem America from the sad state of commercial apathy into which she has fallen. There is a tonic to stimulate the most conservative eastern trader in the very atmosphere surrounding these men of the Pacific. Strong, self-reliant, alert, aggressive; insular and provincial in a certain sense by reason of long separation from the East, they are yet by this very

DECK VIEW OF A PACIFIC STEAMER IN PORT. CHINESE SAILORS FURLING SAILS

separation made more independent and successful, while they have taken on a large cosmopolitanism. They are commercial optimists, looking for a day when America shall take her place in the Orient as she has in the Occident, when she will not only be the chief exporting nation of the East, but the colossal trader of the West.

India, with a total import trade in 1901 of over a billion rupees, crowding $500,000,000, buys across the counters of the world for one-fifth of the population of the globe. Thirty-six per cent of her purchases in 1902 was cotton goods, in

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the manufacture of which the United States leads, twelve per cent manufactures of iron and steel, five per cent mineral oil. Thus more than fifty per cent of her shopping that year was made up of goods that fill our shelves. And yet, out of the entire import trade of that year, the United States received the beggarly portion of one and six-tenths per cent. Our import trade with the Indies—British, Dutch, French and Portuguese—last year was nearly $75,000,000, while we sold to them barely $6,000,000, not one-half of one per cent of all our exports. In the year first mentioned—1901—India imported from Great Britain very nearly five hundred million rupees worth of goods, while we secured a little over twelve millions, about the same as in 1903.

In Japan, in 1900, out of a total of about $150,000,000 spent by her in the markets of the world, we secured about $31,000,000, though, for various reasons, our sales to Japan for the past year—1903—have fallen off from that figure by about $10,000,000. During the first half of 1903, however, the imports of Japan from the United States showed for the first time an increase over her imports from the United Kingdom.

Take it in China. In 1900 she bought goods of the world to the amount of $160,000,000, the United States, by official reports, getting only $12,000,000, though the real aggregate of our sales was somewhat larger than this because of the custom of crediting the trade to the country from which and to which the carrying ship clears, without taking into account the country in which the traffic originated. In 1903 our sales to the Chinese Empire had crept up to nearly $19,000,000, but it was only one and thirty-three hundredths per cent of all our exports.

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LOADING WHEAT AT TACOMA FOR ASIATIC PORTS
The largest wheat warehouse of its sort in the world

Last year Japan, China, Korea, Hong Kong and the Russian possessions fronting the Pacific did a business with the outside world amounting to $600,000,000, fully two-thirds of which was imports. During the year we bought from them $72,000,000 worth of goods and only sold to them a little less than $50,000,000.

These figures are sufficient to make plain the point: we are lagging behind

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Romans Photo Co., Seattle

LOADING LARGE TIMBERS FOR ENGLAND AT PORT BLAKLEY MILL

The timber shown measures 22″ x 22″ x 79′

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WHEAT AT DOCK FOR SHIPMENT TO ASIA

most humiliatingly in the race for this vast prize, ours for the asking. With facilities for producing the major portion of what these people eat and wear and use; nearer by thousands of miles than any competing nation; with a commercial sagacity and keenness in the market of Europe displayed by no other nation of modern times, the United States is content with less than nine per cent of the enormous and, as yet, undeveloped trade of the West.

From the holds of the ships in port along this Pacific coast you may watch the winches raising all manner of merchandise from the Orient. It strikes one as quite incongruous that one ship should be unloading thousands of sacks of rice

FORAGE AWAITING SHIPMENT TO THE ARMY IN THE PHILIPPINES
In Dock at Seattle

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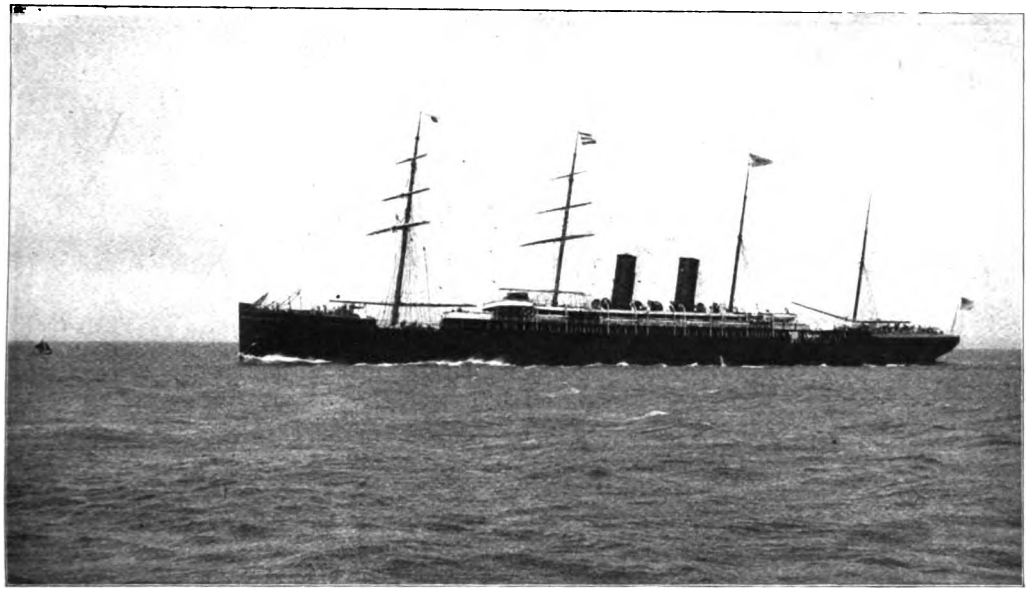
brought from China and Japan to a country capable of producing the choicest rice on the market. All manner of merchandise comes up from the holds of these ships—silks, cocoa, coffee, goat skins, raw silk, millions of dollars worth of spices, millions more of tea; opium, sometimes one hundred and fifty thousand pounds in a single year, tens of thousands of dozens of eggs, dates in enormous quantities, starch, sugar, vinegar, wool, with many another curious product of the fingers of the Celestial.

The outgoing ships, despite our slender sales, bear many articles—breadstuffs, including steadily increasing supplies of flour, ginseng, that magic root so highly prized by the Chinese, agricultural implements, books, maps and engravings, candles, patent medicines, clocks and watches, vast quantities of cotton goods, dried fish, chinaware, dried fruits, glassware, printer's ink, gunpowder, iron and steel, locomotives, typewriters, musical instruments, leather, oils, meat products, writing paper and envelopes, soap, candy, lumber, tobacco, hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of cigarettes, wines, vegetables—these but hint at the long and varied list.

At the wharves of these Pacific coast cities a variety of craft will be found engaged in this oriental trade. Many sailing ships still are seen, not a few of them sadly burdened with the years. Some of the larger and more modern steamships also carry a heavy spread of canvas, while many of the companies provide swift and large steamers without sail. These latter run from three or four thousand tons up to twelve thousand and are as complete in their equipment as the finest Atlantic liners. Among other large craft now building for the oriental trade are the two largest ships ever constructed in the United States, the Dakota and the Minnesota. They have a displacement of thirty-eight thousand tons each. They are each six hundred and thirty feet long, seventy feet six inches wide, fifty-six feet deep. The frames and plating are one-half heavier than other great vessels—double the weight and thickness of the largest American war ships. Each will carry a cargo as large as could be hauled by one hundred railway trains of twenty-five cars each, or as could be hauled by one train seven miles long.



TYPICAL TRANSPACIFIC STEAMER OF THE MIDDLE CLASS

While sailing vessels carry an important part of the cargoes to and from our western coast, the indications are that steam will more and more be used until it will become practically the only motive power of the Pacific.

It is of interest in this connection to

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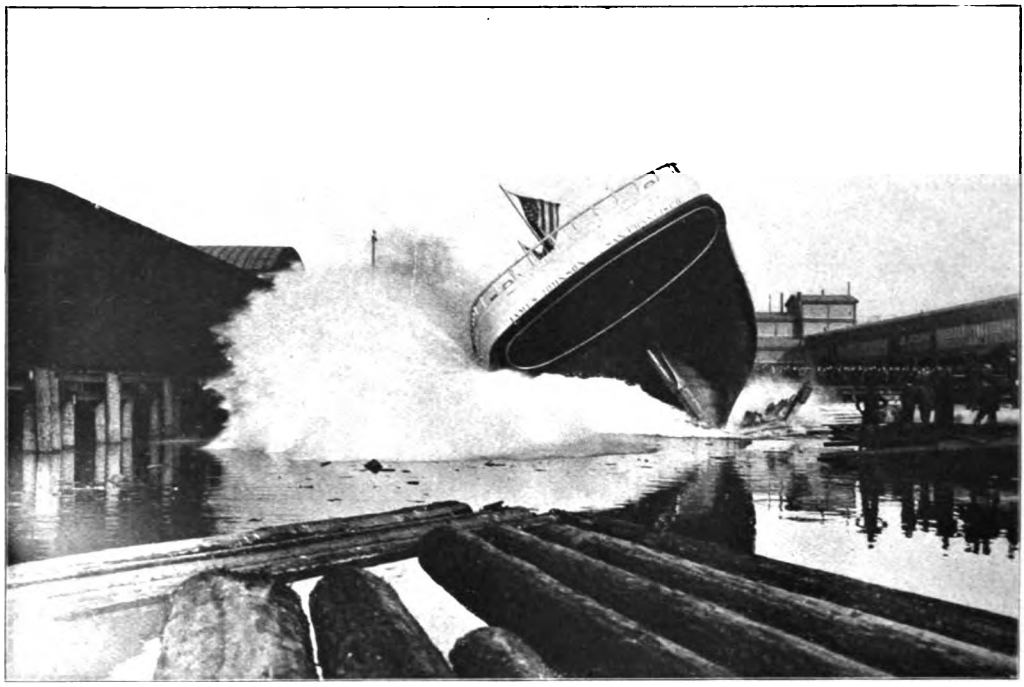

LAUNCHING A BARKENTINE AT A SEATTLE SHIPYARD
The shipbuilding trade of the Pacific Coast is steadily increasing

recall the fact that, in 1860, the tonnage of the vessels of the United States exceeded that of any other nation in the world save Great Britain, and was nearly as large as that of England. In 1903 the tonnage of American merchant ships was a trifle over six millions, an increase of less than seven hundred thousand tons in forty-four years, while in the same period England has increased her merchant ships by over ten millions of tons. It should be noted, however, that the tonnage of the United States merchant navy is far ahead of that of any other country but England, leading Germany, our nearest competitor, by nearly three millions of tons.

What effect the opening of the Panama Canal will have upon the Oriental trade of the Pacific ports has been much discussed by the shippers of that region. It is maintained by some that it will more or less cripple the Pacific trade while stimulating that of the Atlantic, while others strongly hold to the belief that the trade of the Pacific will be increased rather than diminished. Unquestionably the canal will be of immense value to eastern manufacturers and ship owners in increasing their Asiatic trade, while it is believed that the rail rates from the East to Pacific coast points will be so materially reduced by competition as to more than offset the apparent advantage. Looked at impartially, it would seem that the opening of this canal will be of stupendous importance in the development of the trade of the Far West, in whatever port the trade may originate—Gulf, Atlantic or Pacific.

One of the most important factors in the development of this Asiatic trade is a better understanding of the situation. In passing it may be noted that, in recognition of this fact, the University of California, one of the great universities of America, has established a college devoted to oriental and other foreign languages, sea transportation, diplomacy, banking, international law, and similar lines, the prime object being to fit young men to be successful Asiatic traders.

The reports from our consular representatives in the Orient are enthusiastic over the possibilities of American trade.

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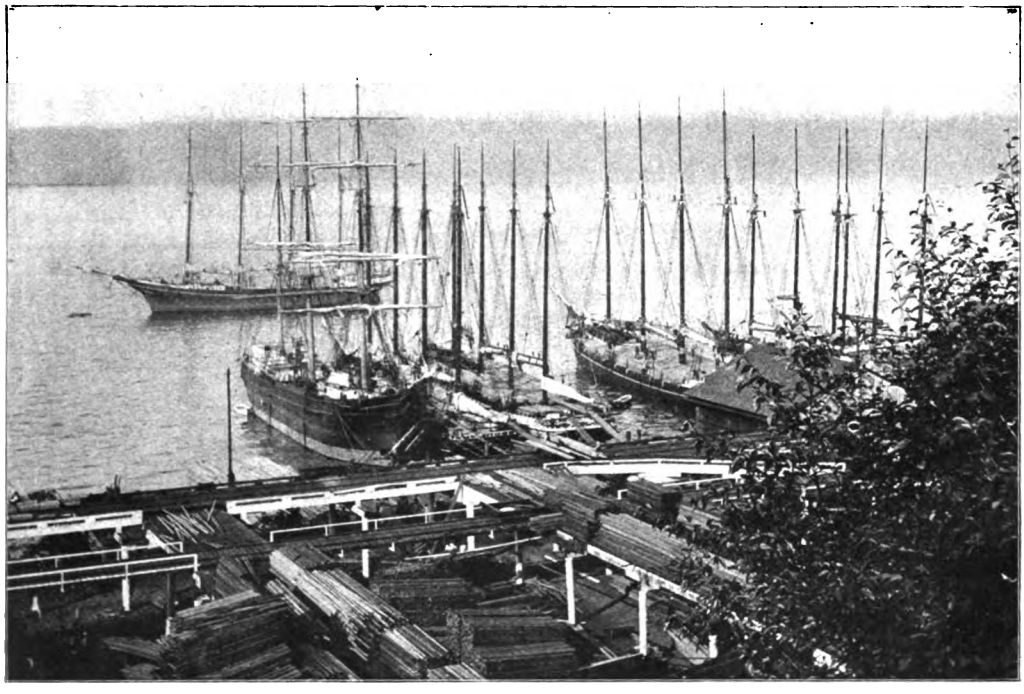

LOADING LUMBER AT TACOMA
These sailing vessels carry lumber all over the world

Two central features, however, are urged as absolutely essential in the development of a large and permanent commerce. One of these is the fact that Asiatic tastes must be consulted in the manufacture of goods. The Oriental is slow to change. Centuries are but days to him. Over and over again the consuls insist that our manufacturers must adapt their wares to the liking of the people who are to buy them.

In order successfully to do this—and this leads to the second feature—it is imperative that American manufacturers shall have representatives on the ground, trained men, having a good working knowledge of the language, and quick to adapt themselves to the likes and the dislikes and even the superstitions and whimsicalities of the Oriental. The display of goods by agents, the establishment of branch houses, the installation of permanent exhibits of American goods—these are among the essentials.

When one considers that there are in China alone 424 resident firms from Great Britain whose shrewd buyers and sellers are in immediate touch with their trade; 120 such firms from Germany; 212 from little Japan, and only eighty-one from the United States, one begins to get some hint of the reason for foreign supremacy in this trade.

Looking at the illimitable extent of territory immediately tributary to these Pacific coast cities, they appear to have but begun their commercial careers. Each of them is from five to seven thousand miles nearer the Asiatic ports of importance than the cities of their nearest European competitors.

Back of these Pacific ports stretch the steel sinews of the great transcontinental railroads reaching east and south for raw material and manufactured goods. All natural conditions combine to present an opportunity for trade expansion such as has been offered to no other nation of modern times.

Take a luscious apple, pare and core it and separate its juicy meat and pass it around—the rich, luscious apple of the Orient—we of America get the peeling and the core.

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IN THE HOME OF THE ELK

BY

HENRY F. COPE

AUTHOR OF "THE AMERICAN INVASION OF CANADA"

WITH the early fall there comes to the full-blooded man a longing for the woods, the call to camp. He forgets the things that are behind—last year's flies and fishless days; he plans routes, times, places and companions. It it is his first trip, the choice of companions will come last; if it is his second, they will come first. Companions make the camp. A friend is a man with whom you can go camping twice.

There are summer camps and fall camps, outing camps and hunting camps. The principal thing accomplished in the summer camp is the conquest of otherwise impregnably dull novels and the most lasting result is a determination "never to go camping with those people again."

But it is far otherwise with the fall hunting camp; this is where men break loose from all the traditions of their daily city life, live outdoors, know one another in the unfiltered light of nature's sincerity and, knowing, appreciate; where they endure hardness and acquire hardihood; where the pines are their couch, the stars their roof, the beasts their only neighbors, woodcraft and watercraft their sole dependence for food; and tan, vigor, girth of chest and breadth of vision their sufficient recompense.

For a big-game camp late in the fall one must go either to Colorado, to Montana or to Wyoming. And, while there is good game and big game in each of these states, it may be doubted if there can be found anywhere else game so plentiful as

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in the Jackson Hole country in Wyoming. This state is not commonly noted as affording fine hunting. The average traveler knows it only from the observation car of some transcontinental train and sees nothing more rugged than the bluffs at Green River. But north from Granger the country gradually becomes more broken until, when in sight of the Tetons, with one jagged giant rising above his fellows to fourteen thousand feet, there is no longer any question as to this being mountain country. Just east of these Tetons lies the ideal hunting ground. It is easily reached by a branch line to St. Anthony, Idaho, and thence by horse or wagon to Jackson. Or, still better, one may come into Jackson Hole by way of the Yellowstone National Park, for it lies immediately south of Wonderland.

Here is a country broken with ragged gullies, abrupt hummocks, great cracks in the earth, immense precipices, noisy streams and beautiful lakes, only less marvelous than the park itself. It is apparently built for the game rather than for the hunter; therefore, the true sportsman will soon learn to call it a beautiful country. The Hole is a valley, in size about ten by forty miles, entirely surrounded by snow-covered peaks, of which the Tetons are the most striking. A thousand streams rush down from the fields of snow, and in the slight timber, the parks and feeding grounds among these are the elk, deer, bear, antelope and, higher up yet, the mountain sheep. It is a list to make a man pack his war-sack! Deer and elk—especially elk—are there in large numbers. Certainly there is no other place in the United States to-day where one can be as certain of seeing elk and seeing plenty of them as here. Think of fifteen hundred of them in one bunch seen on a near-by hillside! But woe betide the man who is an elk-tooth fiend, a "hide-hog" or anything but a true sportsman. Wyoming's laws are strict; if you are a non-resident you must pay a fee of $50 to hunt big game; you must engage a licensed guide, who is also a deputy game warden; you are not allowed to kill more than two elk, two antelope and two deer: the open season runs only from September 15 to November 15. And that is just the right season from every point of view. It is short, but it is long enough to satisfy the hunter. Parties have passed weeks high up in the mountains and never failed to see big game every day; sometimes many hundred head of elk in the same day. Later, in the winter, it is not at all uncommon to see immense bands coming down into the valley to feed, even approaching close to the ranches. Not that they are coming down into the meadows asking to be shot; but that hard work and endurance will not fail to discover them. The man who really hunts is sure to meet his game.

The other big-game grounds of the central Rockies are easily defined. In Montana, in the Centennial Valley, there are deer in plenty, some elk and an occasional moose. In the ranges of Beaverhead County, riding between two camps on an October morning, eighteen head of deer were seen in one bunch within two hundred feet of the road. On the other side of the same range three good sized mountain lions were seen in the same day, all at close range. The cougar, or mountain lion, is seen less frequently than any of the other wild animals of the West. Many men who have hunted all their lives have never seen one. You will have to take your camp well into the deep woods and far from beaten trails and you will find it wise to hunt with a guide and well-seasoned dogs. It will be well worth it all, however, if you bring home no more than one eight or nine foot hide. And, by the way, the three mountain lions already mentioned, instead of viciously attacking their unarmed visitor, did precisely as he did—turned and walked away. There is a tremendous amount of reverence being wasted on the hypothetical courage of the cougar. He is strong and mean; but he is far from aggressively brave.

Some especially fine specimens of big game have been secured near Canon City, Colorado; in particular one bear weighing nearly one thousand pounds. This half ton of Bruin had an unusual history of depredations on cattle and battles with men, so that a reward had been set on his head for many years. All along the main range between Idaho and Montana there are bears, including the grizzly, in plenty. There is an especially wild and favorable region, one almost entirely unknown,

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right at the headwaters of the Clearwater in Idaho. An interview with Bruin in any of these localities will cost a good day's work in tramping and climbing.

Colorado, on account of accessibility, still offers many attractions for fall hunting. Rouett, Rio Blanco and Garfield counties abound in elk, deer and antelope, and the man looking for grizzly will have little trouble in finding them. In October, 1902, a good specimen of Rocky Mountain elk was shot in Rio Blanco County, having a spread of sixty-one inches in the antlers and measuring seven feet one from nose to tail. For the best of big-game hunting in Colorado it is well to leave the train at Glenwood Springs and to outfit there.

An account of a hunting trip in any one of these localities would apply fairly well to all others. If you have never taken such a trip, the best way is to be initiated under the conduct of some thoroughly seasoned hunter and man of the woods and mountains. Few men are to be pitied more than he whose experience is limited to his winter's reading, and who steps from the train at the union station in Denver, holding his gun as though it were a glass rod, to ask the first idle man he meets to show him the way to some good shooting. Failing the guidance of an experienced friend, one may correspond with a reliable guide at the outfitting point. A good guide will cost at least $5 a day, and he will charge fifty cents each a day for the pack and saddle animals. But these rates will include all saddles, tents and general camp paraphernalia, indeed all things necessary except the sportsman's gun and his personal effects. The whole outfitting can best be left to the guide; he knows what you want. He knows, too, how to put you where the game is to be found.

ELK IN THE MOUNTAINS

One thing the wise man will do. He will accustom himself to a saddle before he starts; it will lend him confidence, and it may save him from having to stand up at meal times.

After the gun and ammunition, the essential thing of a camp is the war-sack. This is a stout, heavy canvas bag, shaped like a sausage and capable of being

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packed as solid. Given a war-sack, gun, ammunition, a little canned food (only you must lose the habit of calling it food), rod, flies, tarp. and blankets, or sleeping-bag, and the true mountain man is equipped for any length of time in the hills. No tents for him.

"But suppose it should rain?"

"Well, it won't; and if it should, if you're on a scent you won't know it, and, if you're asleep, just pull up the tarp. or the flap of your sleeping-bag over your head and sleep again."

The making of the camp is no small matter, however. A spot in the timber, near an open space, and not too far from water will be selected. Then clear the ground of broken limbs and loose rocks; cut an ample supply of tender fir twigs and arrange them on the ground, laying them as you would the shingles on a roof; this is the mattress for your bed. Near by the few simple cooking tools are being unpacked; loose rocks are being set up for a back log and arranged so as to hold the skillet over the fire. Perhaps some one has been down to the lake, for these mountains abound with lakes at all altitudes, and he has returned with a mess of mountain trout, incomparable and beyond language. You may sit on an upturned box or on a rock or even have to sprawl on the pine needles; but—well—you never ate before!

Then comes the fall of the day, the strange light through the trees, the last glow through their upper branches, and then the stars.

The embers are glowing in the fire hard by as one throws off the garments of the day, enjoys a stretch and a shiver, and then plunges into the blankets or the bag. Then pull the old cap down over the head, stretch the limbs just beginning to realize how much they have accomplished this day, and begin to comprehend how fair and glorious a place this world is, how much life is worth the having and making. Up there are the stars,

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THE TETON RANGE

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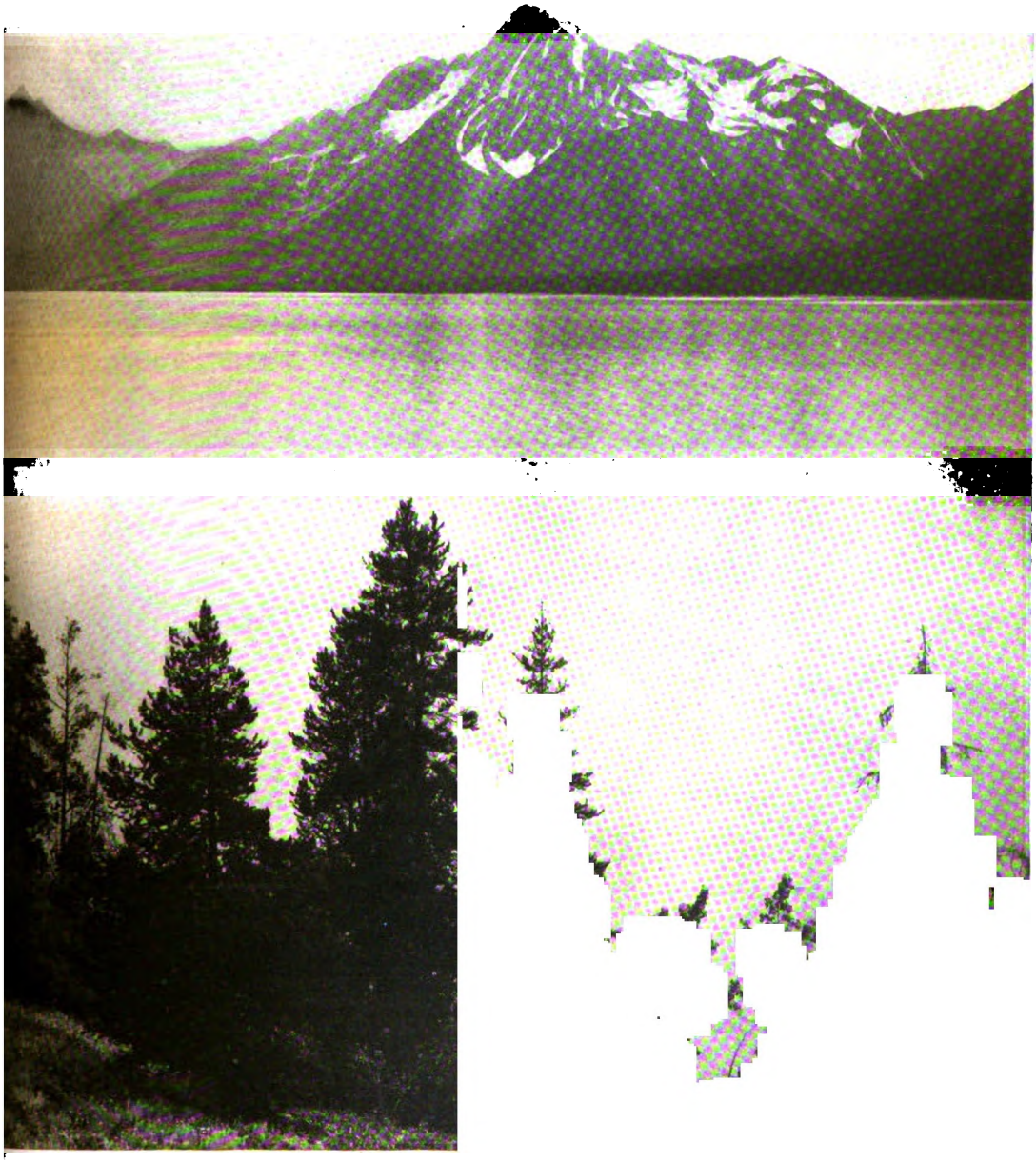

FROM JACKSON'S LAKE

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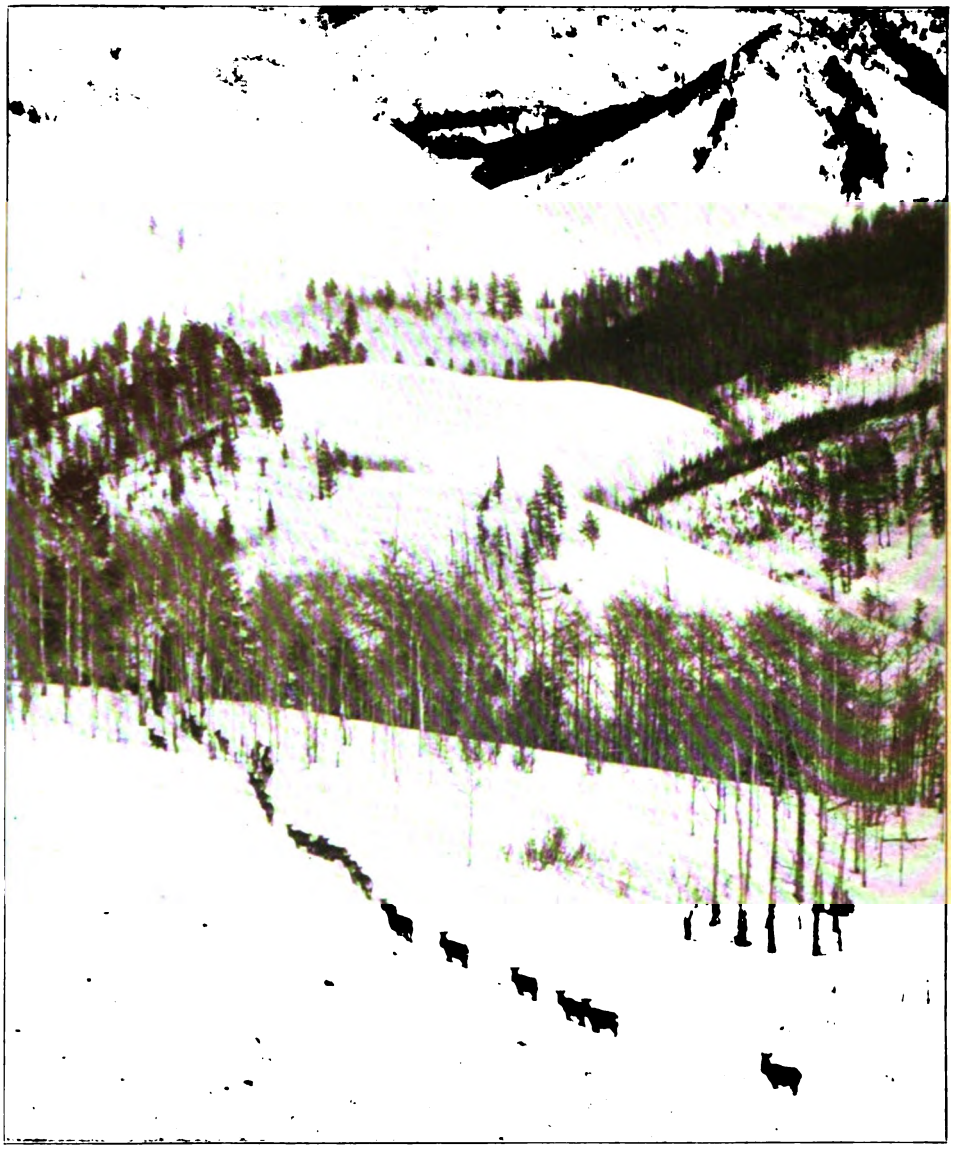

"THE GAME IS THERE"—ELK

strangely bright and strangely near, almost resting on those black, blunt spears of pine. And all about is the symphony of the forest. It is never silent here on the mountain side; there is always some spirit moving among the pines. They do not sing; they breathe; they sigh and soon they whisper and you begin to understand their words. Every little while you will hear the strange creaking, almost moaning sound, where some old hero of the forest has fallen and wedged himself halfway in his downward course between two others among their branches and now sways and groans with every wind. Perhaps the noise of the wild creature is heard, the crash of the deer or the elk coming down to the water, or the steady brush of the bear. The old camper never worries over them; at least he fears no personal in-

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jury. Bruin may attempt to investigate his larder, but he is prepared for that. The idea that a bear, unprovoked, would attack a living, sleeping man belongs to the man who never went beyond Jersey City. Men sleep in the mountains, and that without tents, knowing that bear are at hand, and this regardless of whether they be sleepy browns or silver tips.

The guide will be the last to turn in; but he will be the first to fall asleep. You may marvel at his heartlessness, thus to snore while you are unprotected and, wondering, you will forget for a moment, to wake with the keen beams of the morning striking athwart through the slender trunks. You have slept all night, not with a window open, but without window, wall or roof, and you wake feeling fit to fell an ox.

Man still loves to chase and kill, but even a butterfly-hunting professor would call for a rifle up here. Good hides and spreading antlers look well as trophies. But the true sportsman loves the chase, the patience, the skill, the endurance more than the kill or the record. You will start out after an early snack some morning, tramp for hours over the ankle-wrenching sidehills, climbing over the slippery fallen pines, with the wind in your face, to come at last full on a big head, with spreading antlers and appealing eyes. You may even be near enough to converse; but, in any case, it will be all the same; your first shot will probably get clear away while you are grasping the situation; sheer deer fright, that's all. Many a man who has since become a good hunter has let his rifle fall clattering between his knees on his first meeting. If it should be bear you are tracking you will not be alone, though you may wish you were, so that you could retreat.

But, after all, it was not for elk or bear you came; it was for yet bigger game, for the glow of constant unrestrained touch with nature, nature bounteous, untrimmed and free, for the deep breaths of the air that makes a man stand up straight and shake off all his littlenesses, for the views far over canyon, forest and crag, and for the vision within that such a view imparts, for a sight of a little of this earth before the smut of this world reaches it, in its primal glory, for memories to make a man breathe deeper and lift up his heart in coming days, for new vigor, new gratitude, new hope; these are the big game of the mountains.

BLACK TAIL DEER

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THE GERMAN OFFICER

BY

WOLF VON SCHIERBRAND

AUTHOR OF "RUSSIA, HER STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS," ETC.

ONE of the most striking features of German life is the presence everywhere of the regular soldiery, and the great place the army holds in the thoughts and affections of the nation. Whether you find yourself in Berlin or in some other capital city of the empire, where the regular garrison may number between ten thousand and forty thousand, or in any one of the smaller towns, from four thousand upward, one is sure to see throngs of soldiers, privates or non-commissioned officers, of every species, often mingling with the civilian population on friendly and fraternal lines. Neat and tidy in appearance, you will see officers strutting the streets with a look of conscious dignity and self-importance, jingling their spurs and clanking their sabers. In conversation, too, reference is often made to some branch of the army, to the drills and parades and other military spectacles, or to some more serious question affecting the army and just then also agitating the public mind.

The average German—and most of all the Prussian—speaks with a certain affectionate pride and confidence of the army, and every change, even the slightest, made in it, every promotion or retirement among the higher-grade officers, is commented upon with evident interest. At longer intervals, radical changes that are proposed cause an intensity of discussion which, I think, is unparalleled elsewhere. When, a few years ago, the period of actual military service was, after long debates in the Reichstag, finally reduced from three to two years for the infantry, this step—whose far-reaching importance no military man will, of course, underrate—formed for a long time the daily conversation at every German fireside. During the first eight years of the present Emperor's reign, nothing contributed so much to his unpopularity as his famous "rejuvenation" of the army, i. e., the systematic process of gradually retiring nearly every one of the older generals and regimental commanders. Chamberlain's inconsiderate strictures on the methods employed by the Germans during the war in France, in 1870-71, which he made the past winter, occasioned an outbreak of fury throughout the empire which astonished no one so much as Chamberlain himself. His remarks were considered in Germany in the light of a deliberate and unjustified insult hurled at that *noli me tangere,* the German army, and on that point every German is extremely sensitive. The daily press in Germany, while often ignoring political topics that seem to touch the masses more closely, is forever devoting much space and time to a discussion of the different phases of army life, and their readers demand this great amount of ceaseless attention paid to the subject.

It is at first difficult for an American or Englishman to understand this. With them the army, certainly in times of peace, is about the last subject that would be likely to be discussed in general conversation, and no great interest is evinced by the great public in details of army management. But in a country like Germany, where every father sends his sons to military service, and where almost every maiden has a soldier for a sweetheart, it is but natural that the thoughts and longings of the nation gravitate toward the army. This is truest in Prussia, for that country undeniably owes its rise to power and its present dominating position in the empire to its army institutions, whereas the rest of Germany adopted these institutions only since

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1866. In Prussia the profession of arms is looked upon as the most honorable and glorious of all. The Prussian kings have ever emphasized this estimate on all public occasions, and the "King's coat," or uniform, is to-day considered on Prussian soil as the proudest badge indeed.

The German army officer deserves to be specially discussed. He holds throughout the empire the most enviable position in the eyes of the masses. Socially he ranks first. This is often carried to ludicrous extremes. A simple, beardless lieutenant of twenty has, at all social gatherings, the precedence over the venerable graybeard of a millionaire banker, of a distinguished scholar or scientist, or any other sort of government official, merely on the strength of the uniform he wears. The fashionable German hostess will not mourn deeply if a score of celebrated professors or a half-dozen of real "privy councilors" do not put in their appearance at her five-o'clock tea or her *soirée dansante*, but she will shed tears in secret if only one of the lieutenants she expected fails in coming. Naturally, the officer is not slow in using his advantages. He has, if of fairly distinguished family, untarnished reputation, and an average share of good looks, practically the pick of all the good things in life. Above all, he rules the matrimonial market.

Penniless officers of the kind spoken of above find no difficulty in choosing life partners with big fortunes. The pursuit and capture of this sort of game is technically known among army officers as "catching a goldfish." A handsome youth of respectable family, but afflicted with a deficiency in both brains and money, can not do better in Germany than to enter the army, after a few years spent in preliminaries at any one of the military academies, a lieutenant at twenty. He will from that hour on have his unlimited choice of all the marriageable young ladies that cross his horizon. He will, of course, take his time about it, and usually first devote himself, for the space of ten or fifteen years, to the pleasant task of accumulating the average load of personal debts. But the usurers having at last become fractious and unmanageable, the handsome officer, meanwhile promoted first lieutenant, captain, or major, will make his choice deliberately.

GENERAL COUNT VON HULSEN-HASELER
Chief of the Emperor's Military Cabinet

It is the father-in-law's invariable privilege to settle the aforesaid debts (American or English fathers-in-law of German army officers bear the reputation of being sometimes a little astonished and backward in fulfilling this duty), and to furnish his daughter with a "respectable" dowry. The size of the latter will depend, of course, on all sorts of circumstances, such as the rank and the family connections of the *fiancé*, etc. It may, and frequently does, run up into the hundreds of thousands, but it can not fall below a minimum which the government itself has fixed. This minimum is lower for officers of the line than for those in the guards, lower for infantry than for cavalry. But in any case a sum, which is called a marriage *kaution*, must be converted into safe government bonds, bearing interest at the rate of three or three and a half per cent, and then placed in some safe, moneyed institution specially designated for the purpose, where it is at all times subject to the control and inspection of the army officials. The smallest *kaution* amounts to about $10,000, and its interest, together with the meager pay of the officer himself, is supposed to en-

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THE GERMAN CROWN PRINCE
Who will command the German Army when he comes to the Throne

able the latter with his family to make both ends meet, with rigid economy and frequent presents from the inexhaustible purse of the wealthy father-in-law, who is never supposed to grumble at this slightly one-sided arrangement, but on the contrary expected always cheerfully to contribute, at all crucial moments of the young couple's existence, to the latter's exchequer. And as a matter of fact, the German father-in-law at least knows his part too well ever to become obstreperous.

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This whole matter is conducted strictly on a business basis, without reserve or sentimentality on either side. The fortunate young woman on whom the handsome officer's choice has fallen knows about the transactions, which sometimes require considerable time, in a general way, but she is usually spared the details. The matter is spoken of in mixed company as any other fact established by the inscrutable ways of Providence would be. As a rule, officers, no matter how young and unsophisticated otherwise, display great talent in ascertaining the exact size of the *dots* fathers are known to hold ready in the event of a union of their daughters with an officer. If the amount appears insufficient to one officer, he will leave the track clear for a comrade whose expectations do not run so high. An impecunious officer serving in a crack regiment, say in Berlin or Potsdam, requires with his bride a marriage portion of at least five hundred thousand to one million marks. He will wait a reasonable time until he meets and conquers such a girl or widow. If, however, he is gradually getting into the sere and yellow leaf, with his hopes still unrealized, he may lower his estimate, and then he has himself transferred to a provincial regiment, where less money goes farther.

Occasionally the "goldfish hunter" is unable, despite all his cunning and all his social and official sources of information, to determine the exact amount of the *dot* held in store. Then he will have recourse to one of those astute agents or *brocanteurs de mariage* swarming in German large cities. If that fails as well, he will seize both horns of the dilemma, request a private interview with his prospective father-in-law and unmask his batteries, so to speak. He will, in plain but respectful language, tell that worthy that he has met and learned to appreciate his daughter Gretchen; that he would like to marry her, believing that a certain amount of mutual regard exists, but that, unfortunately, he himself is penniless; that, therefore, the girl he marries must have a certain amount of money; that he, under all these circumstances, would deem it a great favor if Herr. ———— would kindly divulge to him the precise amount of money he is able and willing to settle on his daughter Gretchen, together with any other cognate information he is willing to vouchsafe—all this, of course, in confidence. The future father-in-law will thereupon tell the truth, and whether the amount mentioned was large enough for the young officer's needs will soon be seen, for if his attentions to Gretchen do not abruptly terminate after that interview, it is proof positive that the sum was satisfactory.

"Goldfishes" are not so very plentiful in a country like Germany, and so it has happened that the foreign "goldfishes," American or English preferred, are also hunted to some extent. There are to-day to be found in every garrison town in the empire, numbers of American or English women married to German officers, and often playing a conspicuous social rôle. Their special delight is going to court, even if it be only a tiny one like the courts at Strelitz, Weimar, Coburg or Schaumburg, where an income of six thousand marks is held semi-royal, and where weak punch is about the height of dissipation indulged in at the winter functions. Curiously enough, as a matter of fact, these pseudo-Germans of American or English birth and education take, as a rule, an even intenser joy than do the native German ladies in the ridiculous and inane court intrigues and cabals that form the chief occupation of those admitted to these lilliputian mockeries of royalty. At the duodecimo edition of a capital where one of the German Emperor's sisters, Victoria, is holding dread sway over her few subjects of Schaumburg-Lippe, the American wife of a German official is noted for her eagerness in attending. And her case is but one of many that could be mentioned.

It is a mistake to think, as so many American editors and others do, that these American ladies married in Germany live unhappily and are pining away in vain sighs for a good scream of the American eagle. With very few exceptions, they have there found the life they wanted, and are thoroughly happy and contented. The American women are more adaptable and of nimbler intelligence than their English sisters, and as a consequence they more quickly learn to feel at home in their new surroundings, and thus become more popular and socially influential. But this influence has

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altered in nothing the peculiar code of honor held by the German army officer, including his firm belief in the duel as an *ultima ratio* in private affairs.

The number of duels fought in the army is steadily but slowly decreasing. But the duel as a fixed institution remains. In Germany, duels both inside and outside the army are usually not such trifling affairs as in France. The German thoroughness betrays itself even there. Many of the most promising younger officers have fallen on this field of mistaken honor. It would cost the Kaiser but a word to drive the duel out of the army forever, and with its disappearance from there it would also quickly die out in civilian circles. But the Kaiser is unwilling to say that word, as his earlier education in the army has made him share the same set of prejudices on which the army code is largely built. That is why he uses only palliatives and half-measures in fighting the evil, or rather what he considers its excrescences. His decree, issued a few years ago, has merely a tendency to diminish the number of victims.

One of the strange ideas held by the German army officer, as part of his professional code, was picturesquely illustrated by the Brüsewitz tragedy. That officer being somewhat roughly jostled by a half-drunken plumber, in a miscellaneous crowd that sat back of him in a café at Carlsruhe, he followed the offender out of the place and ran his sword through his body, killing the man on the spot. In doing this, Lieutenant von Brüsewitz had acted in strict accordance with the code of honor valid to this day in the German army. For the offender, being of too low a social caste to be admitted to the privilege of a *duello* with an army officer, had to be killed, so that his blood would wash away the dark stain made on the officer's escutcheon by the affront offered. His procedure, cowardly as it seemed to the world at large—for it was the slaying of an unarmed and at the moment defenseless man—was perfectly *en règle* viewed from the German army officer's habitual point, and that accounts, of course, for the fact that the court martial sentenced him to but a few years of mild incarceration.

Brüsewitz had, however, some conscience left, and his deed weighed heavy on his soul. He sought and found a sovereign remedy, and he enlisted as a volunteer on the Boer side, soon after the outbreak of the war in South Africa. The reports all agree that he conducted himself in an exemplary manner, dying eventually the death of a brave man on the battlefield. His body was found on the veldt and later conveyed home to Germany. The military press commented widely on his expiatory death, and he was generally represented as a victim of unfortunate circumstances.

The Brüsewitz case, on account of its dramatic and unusual features, occasioned world-wide interest. It was, however, but one of many that have happened, and are still happening, in Germany. A couple of years ago, for instance, there was an occurrence in the old city of Koenigsberg, far to the north, close to the borders of Russia, which, in some of its details, was more atrocious than the Brüsewitz case. A group of officers, slightly under the influence of liquor, encountered on the street, late at night, several civilians. These citizens, too, were not quite sober, and one of them, whether purposely or by accident, stumbled against one of the officers. The latter immediately drew his sword and stabbed the offender twice, wounding him dangerously. Another citizen meanwhile had vainly attempted to prevent this outrage by grasping hold of the officer's arm. Thereupon all the other officers tore their weapons from their scabbards and inflicted such injuries on the would-be peacemaker as to cause his death a few days later. As in the case of Brüsewitz no very severe punishment was meted out to them, although a number of the most influential newspapers had demanded adequate retribution, and the Kaiser subsequently remitted part of the sentence.

Such cases and the dueling habit are among the unhealthy growths on a code of honor which in many respects embodies a high standard of ethics. It is not too much to say that, viewing them as a body, the German army officers are men of the highest integrity and of charming manners. They are deservedly popular in German social life. No gathering in the upper strata of German society is complete nor fully enjoyable without at least

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one or two representatives of the army. The corps used to recruit itself very largely from the nobility, and this is still true to a certain extent. There is, all over Germany, a part of the nobility specially designated as the *Militäradel,* owing to the members serving their sovereign and country, generation after generation, as officers in the army. From this section of the aristocracy have sprung perhaps the majority of successful soldiers. But the size of the German army has more than doubled since 1870, being now 687,000 strong, and thus it has been found necessary to admit as officers an increasingly higher percentage of men drawn from the middle classes. These now form considerably more than half the total number, and that, it is interesting to note, is gradually altering the character of the whole corps. It will not be many years hence when this change will become more apparent.

There is, however, one whole class of the population which is still rigorously excluded from the body of active officers in the army, namely, the Jews. The German constitution recognizes no such invidious distinction, and the Liberal factions in the Reichstag annually take the army administration—and that indirectly means the Kaiser as well—to task for consistently discriminating against the Germans of Hebrew race or faith; but all to no purpose. The Jewish press of Germany has, now and then, pointed to the large number of German soldiers of Hebrew race who signally distinguished themselves during the Franco-German War, among them being a long list of men who received the highest decoration for bravery, namely, the iron cross, and the German army surgeons are, I believe, in their majority, Jews. But there is, nevertheless, a strong prejudice in the army itself and in government circles, including the Emperor, against the appointment of Jews as field officers, and on various occasions, when in exceptional cases young Jews had presented themselves for admission in certain regiments as officers, they have been blackballed by the corps and thus effectually excluded.

While according all due praise to the Germany army officers as a body of men showing a number of sterling qualities, it must be conceded that in several important respects their influence on national life is not wholesome. By their entire training, their traditions, their social and professional surroundings, but above all their peculiar ethics, they form a body apart, which does not usually amalgamate with the ideas and aims, still less with the customs and convictions, of the population as a whole. This spirit of separation, which from the monarchic point of view may be deemed desirable, militates against the democratization of the army. It brings it about that the officer on his part, as a rule, does not share those sentiments which for the time lie uppermost in the breast of the nation, but make him stand aside, an indifferent spectator. It also brings it about that every now and then some typical event in army circles is pointed out by the more enlightened and progressive part of the German press to be in direct contravention to the customs and convictions of the civilian population.

Life in the German army, though by no means as luxurious as in the crack regiments of the English army, has ceased to be frugal and simple, such as it was before 1870. Gaming is much indulged in, and a large number of the tragedies acted within army circles is caused by it every year. Racing and betting and the more expensive forms of sport are also much followed. The Union Club and the Jockey Club in Berlin, both largely composed of officers belonging to the guard corps, and of whom the majority are scions of the leading aristocratic families, are perhaps the worst centers of fashionable dissipation in the empire. During the winter "hazard" games, such as *vingt-et-un, lansquenet, écarté,* baccarat, and, of late, poker, are played, often for very high stakes. Tens of thousands change hands at one table in a single night, and on the turn of one card frequently depends a small fortune. In the summer time, outdoor sports and the betting on their results engross the members. It is at these clubs, and at hundreds of smaller ones in the provinces, that the fatal taste for gaming and betting is first acquired by the young sprigs of nobility who subsequently "go to the bad." The complete financial ruin of five of the oldest and most renowned Prussian noble families was accomplished at one of the above clubs in the course of

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one season, not many years ago. It was from this place that the coterie later known as the *Club der Harmlosen,* or Club of Innocents, first graduated. One of its most famous victims was a young grandson of Queen Victoria, the late heir-apparent to the Duchy of Coburg, young Prince Alfred. Thoroughly debauched at these clubs, he died a miserable death soon after. The picture of incessant and disgusting dissipation which these "Innocents" presented when a number of high-life scandals finally came to be ventilated in the Berlin courts was shocking enough to stir the public conscience, and for months the German press of every shade of opinion was ringing with the general indignation felt at the horrible details brought out at the several trials. One of the Kaiser's personal aides-de-camp was implicated, and the attendant disgrace led to his retirement from the army, as well as to that of a score of other young officers.

One of the most dangerous features of fashionable club life in the German army is what is called playing "on parole," i. e., without visible stakes, solely on notes of hand or word of mouth. The iron-clad custom is to redeem these bits of paper within twenty-four hours, on pain of dishonor and exposure. This is one of the most prolific causes of suicide among the young and reckless, but otherwise promising, officers. One of the favorite forms this ending to a brief season of dissipation takes is the so-called "American duel." This is about the most senseless and un-American invention of the continental rake, and how the legend ever originated that this species of suicide came from this side of the Atlantic nobody seems able to tell.

The "army usurer" is another peculiar institution in Germany. This type of vampire preys on the reckless and inexperienced young officers of good family. The law reaches him but seldom, for his methods are cunningly devised to fit the needs and prejudices of his victims. His customary procedure is about this: By his ramified connections he knows the precise financial and moral status of every officer in town. This includes reliable information about family relations and family wealth, regular monthly or quarterly allowances from home, habits, tastes and possible "entanglements," and so forth. With this fund of absolute knowledge to start with, the risk run by the usurer in advancing money is relatively small. He will first politely and repeatedly offer his services, and this failing to produce any effect, he will bide his time till the prospective victim is temporarily straitened for ready money, owing to a run of "bad luck," etc., and then renew his offers in a tempting form. The terms he will then make depend, of course, on circumstances, but he is always willing to "renew," at least so long as he thinks it will be to his eventual advantage. The usury law is gotten over by having the debtor sign for a larger amount than actually paid. Gradually the net will become tighter and tighter. The loans have grown larger and more frequent, and the terms more unfavorable. Finally the victim reaches the point when desperate measures have to be resorted to. That may mean the relinquishment of his "golden bachelor days" and a "money marriage," or it may mean a family council at home, a council called for the purpose of extricating the black sheep from the toils. In any case, the usurer will get his money back, plus the enormous profit he is sure to reap out of the whole affair, a profit rising often into the hundreds per cent. At such a reckoning the officer's assets will frequently consist of "valuable" oil paintings, hundreds of cases of vile champagne, etc., which the usurer made it a *conditio sine qua non* for his victim to take as part of his loans. There may then be a new mortgage on the paternal acres, or the whole family at home may be obliged to skimp and save for years, until, sooner or later, there comes the catastrophe—a bullet, resignation from the army, and penury, or, if not before concluded, a "money marriage." That is the average winding up.

There are, unfortunately, no statistics to be had of this phase of army life, but the percentage of officers who, through the "friendly and timely" services of these money sharks, and through their own gullibility and recklessness, of course, are either permanently ruined for life, or else—which is not much better and less creditable—forced to contract one of those loveless matrimonial unions, which,

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based on both sides on mercenary and unworthy motives, figure as a travesty on honest wedlock, is astoundingly large in these present days. The whole army is honeycombed with such cases.

There is, besides, too much drinking and feasting in the German army. That is one of the points wherein the Kaiser fails to set a good example. The regulation mess is, in most cases, not extravagant, but there are too many special occasions sought and found when the contrary is true. The main source of evil in this respect are the so-called "*Liebesmähler,*" or "Love Feasts"—anniversary days of battles in which the regiment, company or squadron figured conspicuously; birthday or farewell parties given by members; anniversaries of the birth of the emperor, king, chief of the regiment, etc. On all such occasions the eating and, more particularly, the drinking is beyond all reason and good sense, and so, too often, is the toasting and the table talk followed by card playing for high stakes. The Kaiser is amazingly fond of these carousals, attending scores of them during every year, and a large number of his most extravagant speeches and remarks were made at the wassail bowl on these occasions, when everybody was flushed with cheer, and when he was not afraid of publicity. He has, however, been growing more cautious of late.

In a word, the old-time Spartan simplicity of life that was one of the chief characteristics of the Prussian officer during the fifty years between Waterloo and Sadowa, when he was training for his magnificent feats against Austria and France, has departed. In too many cases spendthrift methods and riotous and luxurious living have replaced it. The Kaiser vainly issues decrees and army orders against it. Every autumn, after the big maneuvers, when the bulk of the changes in the army—promotions, retirements and forcible discharges—are promulgated, there is quite a number of names of officers made known whose dismissal has been caused by profligacy or worse. All this does not augur well for the future, although it would be going too far to say that the army spirit, as a whole, is already seriously affected by it. Still, viewing the various tendencies at work within the German army—and particularly the Prussian part of it—calmly and judiciously, one does find several striking traits of similarity with the period following the death of Frederick the Great, and which led to the complete downfall of Prussian military prestige at Jena. Prussia has not, so far, had her Dreyfus affair, it is true, but there have been noticeable a number of symptoms of their kind nearly if not quite as alarming.

DISCOVERY OF A PREHISTORIC NECROPOLIS

BY

E. DOUGLAS SHEILDS

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WHEN Mr. Reddie Mallett insisted as a lad on going to sea, he would have hotly denied the prediction that he would later on abandon sea-faring for music study in Germany. Nor, when he arrived at this stage, would his most gloomy forebodings ever have told him that failing health would cause him to give up his musical career and go on a tramp in Cornwall in search of strength. And yet this is what happened, and this is what set in motion forces and enthusiasms that may have far-reaching results. The beauty of Harlyn Bay, the warm color of its sands, the almost Mediterranean blue of the sea,

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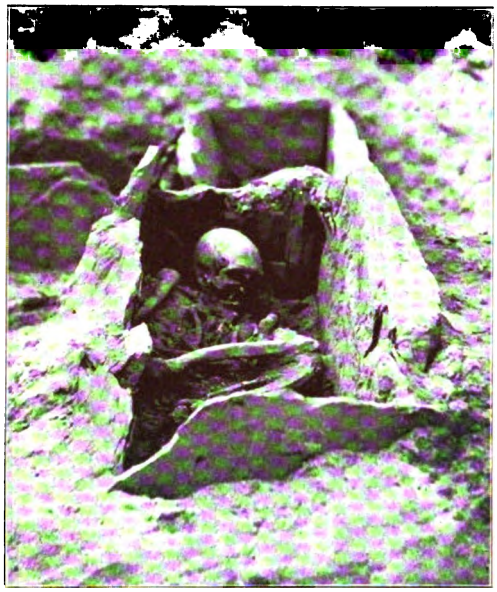

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ONE OF THE HARLYN BAY SKELETONS IN ITS STONE CIST

the bold headlands and green shores kept Mr. Mallett there. He pitched his camp upon the sands. After a few weeks of tent life he resolved to build him a house.

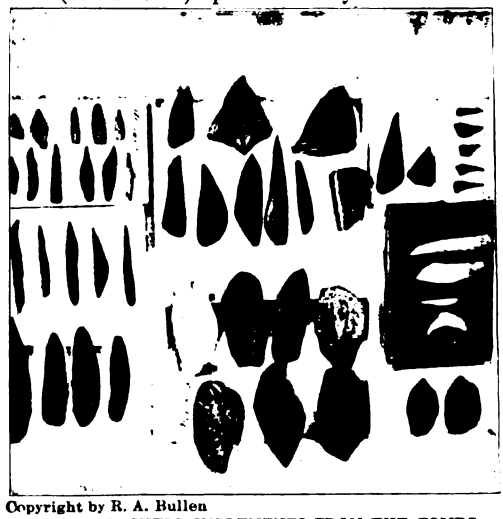
When digging for the foundations, the workmen came upon a slate cist at a depth of fifteen feet containing a skeleton and stone implements. Mr. Mallett had happened upon a prehistoric necropolis. At once the building of the house was abandoned. News of the discovery was sent to several antiquarian and scientific societies, and a committee of investigation was formed, including in its number members of various antiquarian societies and Mr. Baring-Gould, the well-known novelist, whose book, "In the Roar of the Sea," has made certain parts of Cornwall famous.

About two thousand tons of the sand that had played so momentous a part in the history of Cornwall had to be removed before many interments were laid bare. At the present time over two hundred have been examined. The upper layer of bright, clean sand, twelve to fifteen feet deep, contains no relics. But under it, where the dark and light sand merge, are found slate flakes, animal and human bones, teeth, implements, burnt stones and frequent traces of fire. Deeper still, in the dark sand, are found bodkins made of bone and limpet shell, some amulets and numerous fragments of rock and stone. Mr. Mallett has carefully removed the sand from several cists and has roofed them over with a framework, through which one can observe the crouched-up position of the skeleton. The best specimens have been reserved for a small museum which has been built near the excavations.

The crouched-up position of the skeletons and the polished stone and slate implements point to a period extending from the late neolithic to the early keltic or iron period. The instruments show considerable skill. The needles of bone or of limpet shell are so sharp that even now one can piece one's skin with them. The hammers, sharp-edged knife blades, awls and tapering bodkins are well shaped. A few of the cists are circular and made up of two compartments. In these the skulls and some of the limbs seem to have been severed before death.

An address on the subject, delivered by a member of the Odontological Society of London, says:

In several cases the bodies were absolutely dismembered, a skull being at each end of the cist, and each smashed on the right side. The lower jaw is missing in each case, and the legs, arms, and other bones are arranged fantastically about, deposited about the gravel with intervening layers of slate rubble. Skull and cross bones are clearly discernible. Magnificent teeth are in each upper jaw, one tooth being more than an inch and a half in length. In one tomb seeds were found in a kind of chest made of slate, and shortly after the cist was opened some of the seed (convolvulus) sprouted freely.



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SLATE AND SHELL IMPLEMENTS FROM THE TOMBS AT HARLYN BAY

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The smashing of the right temporal bone may have been done after death to allow the spirit egress, but the position of some of the skeletons points to the probability of their having been killed in their graves by the throwing of heavy weights upon them. Professor A. Bullen, B.A., F.L.S., F.G.S., to whom the writer is indebted for much interesting information contained in his pamphlet on the Harlyn Bay discoveries, as also for some of the photographs here reproduced, says: "The majority of the skeletons lie on the left side with the right temporal bone smashed in and with the knees nearly touching the chin. This crouched-up position was very prevalent in different parts of the world at that period." In one respect, however, the Harlyn Bay burials are peculiar. Most of the bodies were placed with the head pointing north, or more correctly to the magnetic north. This is very remarkable in a period before the invention of the mariner's compass, and not easy of explanation unless by reference to the Polar Star.

Of particular interest is the discovery at Harlyn Bay of two flattened skeletons, those of a woman and a child, found where the sand was deepest. Almost unmistakably when looking at them, we are in the presence of human sacrifice. The mode of their interment is remarkable in several respects. Covering them were large slabs of slate, one of which is four and a half feet long, two feet wide and very heavy. Over them was built a low wall about three feet high, which has been traced for twenty feet. The skeletons were no doubt buried thus to ensure the stability of the wall built over them. This custom of foundation sacrifice has prevailed universally at different times. Professor A. C. Haddon in his book, "The Study of Man," states how, in 1872, when the Hooghly Bridge was being constructed in Calcutta, there was great uneasiness among the Indians. They had got hold of the idea that Mother Ganges, indignant at being bridged, had at last consented to submit, but only on condition that the structure was founded on a layer of children's heads. Formerly in Siam, when a new city gate was being erected, it was customary for a number of officers to lie in wait and seize the first four persons who

FISHING VILLAGE AT HARLYN BAY

happened to pass by, and who were then buried alive under the gate posts to serve as guardian angels (Tylor's Primitive Culture, I, 97). Other instances of the same custom and beliefs are given in the two books from which these examples are taken.

Other objects that arouse curiosity in this museum of prehistoric customs at Harlyn Bay are teeth found either singly or in numbers beside the corpses. That they were charms is almost proved by the interesting fact that as lately as the nineteenth century teeth used to be abstracted from the coffins under the floor of St. Merryn's Church and sold for eighteen pence each as charms. St. Merryn's is only three miles from Harlyn Bay.

The graves in these Cornish cists are placed methodically in regular lines, and in some cases four cists have been placed one above the other. Probably each layer was covered up by the encroaching sand. At one time the coast of Cornwall extended to the Scilly Isles. Since then 227 square miles have been engulfed. Away out beyond the skyline where now the sea holds sway, the lost lands of Lyonesse lie hid. Within recent years land and buildings have been buried in sand.

The skulls found at Harlyn Bay have been carefully studied by members of the Odontological Society of Great Britain, with special reference to the cranial measurements and the condition of the teeth. Their work was greatly aided by the

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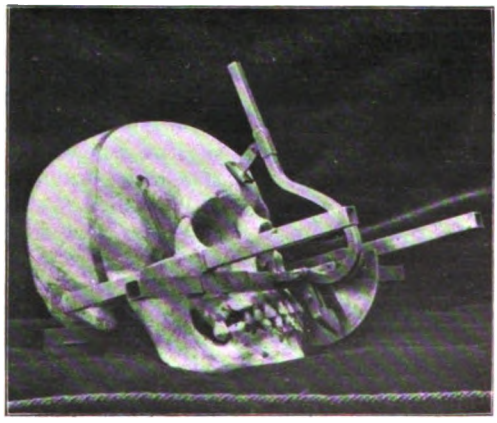
FRONT AND SIDE VIEW OF A SKULL FOUND AT HARLYN BAY

craniometer, a new instrument invented and lent them by Dr. Leon Williams, a citizen of the United States, who has lived for many years in London. There are four important measurements which should be made in any comparative examination of skulls: Width between the ears; distance from the external opening of the ears forward to the point where the nose joins the upper lip; the distance over the top of the skull from one ear opening to the other; fourthly, the degree of inclination of the face. Many regard this last measurement as the most important from the standpoint of evolution. The craniometer, once adjusted, takes all these measurements simultaneously. All of the measurements are read in centimeters and millimeters, except that of the inclination of the face, which is read in degrees.



DR. LEON WILLIAMS' CRANIOMETER

Professor Beddoe has pronounced the skulls to be between twenty-five hundred and three thousand years old, while Professor Body-Dawkins gives the probable age of some of the remains as five thousand years. Several are distinctly brachycephalic, which is a short way of saying that the breadth is at least four-fifths of the length. Authorities differ as to the source of this strain of fiery and impulsive short-heads that runs through the Anglo-Saxon race. Dr. Beddoe does not think it probable that the neolithic brachycephals of France came over to the British Isles. A. C. Haddon, however, in his "Studies of Irish Craniology," says he is inclined to think they did come over, and that traces of them are still to be seen in Ireland more than in Great Britain. If so, they came as a mixed race, probably the Celts of Broca. There is, however, another source from which they may have come. The immigration of the neolithic brachycephals into western Europe came from eastern Europe, and originally almost certainly from Asia. It is also probable that they were of the same stock as the Lapps and Finns, or rather one constituent part of the latter people. It may be that the short, dark, brachycephalic element in the British Isles and in America, that seem to be mainly occupied in upsetting the more slow-going methods and ideas of their long-headed fellow countrymen, was largely due to this northern element which came direct from Scandinavia in the neolithic period.

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COLLEGE ATHLETICS AND COLLEGE MORALS

BY

WILLIAM H. P. FAUNCE

PRESIDENT OF BROWN UNIVERSITY

THE history of college sport in America during the last thirty years may be divided into three periods: the period of genuine recreation, the period of expansion and publicity, and the period of systematic prevarication.

The period of genuine recreation the older men can easily recall. I would not be classed with the *laudatores temporis acti*. That early period, when sport was pure enjoyment, without thought of amateur or professional standing, with little calculation of financial results, had, of course, its infelicities and shortcomings. Physical culture had not then been properly emphasized. The traditional student was a narrow-chested recluse, whose symbol was the midnight lamp. But at least this must be said: When the students of that day had their sports, they had a far greater amount of pure, undiluted enjoyment than is possible under present artificial and complex conditions. When a friend of mine, a noted athlete, recently saw a score of students disporting themselves in a college swimming-pool, he said: "That is the ideal of recreation, spontaneous, impromptu, uncalculating! No 'eligibility,' no vexatious network of rules, no prizes save the honor of winning, no thunders of applause, no gate receipts—simply pure, wholesome, healthful fun. When will those days return again in all collegiate sport?"

Though we can not reverse the glass of time, it is good to remember some things we once possessed. Sport was then utterly subordinate to other interests. No man who engaged in it needed to sacrifice scholarship or character. It made comparatively small drafts on one's time, or nervous energy, or one's purse. To win games was not the goal of existence, nor was losing games a reason for final despair. The qualifications for "making" a team were not so lofty and difficult as to exclude the great majority of students. Any man of good muscular and nervous power might hope to share in some of the games of his college. To be paid for playing was as inconceivable as to be paid for cheering or singing. "No one then worked for money, ... but each for the joy of the working." It is true that the students as a whole then lacked some rallying point, some means of expression for their corporate consciousness, and student feeling found vent in many a prank, or even rebellion, which now would seem absurd or impossible. I gladly recognize all that athletics have done to provide expression for the corporate loyalty and the exuberant vitality of the student body. But we can not look back on the college sport of thirty or forty years ago without recognizing that in its naturalness, its unforced enjoyment, its fine spontaneousness, its freedom from sordid calculations, its superiority to evasion and trickery, it was beyond anything we have to-day.

Then came, by a natural development, the period when financial considerations were forced to the front. The eyes of the managers of professional teams were covetously cast on the "stars" in our college teams, and long before graduation large sums were offered to induce our students to postpone or surrender their chosen careers, and join in making sport for the public. That sport-loving public began to attend in increasing numbers the intercollegiate games. Gate receipts vastly increased. Coaches of large experience and high-priced skill were introduced. Training tables were established, costly paraphernalia, expensive hotels and palace cars became necessary, and college sport in a few years took on the dimensions, the apparent importance, the methods and the spirit of the professional

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world outside. Then the alumni awoke to the need of aiding their college in this new and strenuous rivalry. They supported captains and managers in various novel and subterranean schemes. Secondary schools were visited throughout the country, and promising athletes were dazzled by offers from numerous colleges. Good baseball players were bought up in the annual market by every really enterprising athletic board. They might be intellectual dullards, but they could at least take one course in the machine shops, or listen to a series of stereopticon lectures on architecture, and so become qualified to represent their college. Vigorous executives soon saw the advertising power of victorious athletic teams, and large scholarships were forthcoming for those who, however deficient mentally, showed promise of athletic prowess. Students migrated from one college to another with a suddenness which only alumni in the secret could explain. The teams in many cases did not represent the college or its ideals, but represented simply the business enterprise and financial resources of the athletic association.

The history of that remarkable period will some day be written by the men who created it. Pardon a few details. On one occasion, just before a critical game, the pitcher of one team was offered $25 by a professional manager, if he would desert the college team and pitch for the "professionals." Immediately he deserted—as why should he not? He had no shred of interest in the college, having come there simply to make money. On another occasion a famous ball player, receiving an offer of a handsome professional salary for the season, left college in the month of May, never to return, leaving for the same reason that he entered—to put money in his purse. On another occasion, half an hour before an important game, the captain said to the manager: "Here is my laundry bill. I can not pay it. You pay it or I do not play." The bill was paid and the game proceeded. Hundreds of such bills were paid without scruple in order, at all costs, to purchase victory. This period of open traffic brought into our colleges a section of the sporting fraternity, taught our students devices which they would previously have spurned, dulled the sense of honor, and seriously damaged standards of scholarship. Conditions became so intolerable that a general revolt was inevitable. To hire men to play was no intrinsic moral wrong, but it was none the less causing an obvious deterioration of manners and morals. One by one the colleges resolved to draw a sharp line of distinction between amateur and professional sport, and to insist upon the former. Especially influential was a conference called by Brown University, and often called the "Providence Conference." This conference resulted in the formation of a league by several Eastern colleges, which agreed that a student, before he could represent his college in any athletic contest, must declare that he had never in his life received any compensation, direct or indirect, for the use of any athletic knowledge or skill he may possess. Practically all the leading colleges adopted this rule, little dreaming that they were ushering in the third period—that of systematic prevarication.

The new rules offered the finest possible field for casuistry and hair-splitting. With student conscience behind them they would have remedied the evil, but that conscience did not insist on literal enforcement. What is "indirect compensation"? If the students secure for one of their number an opportunity to earn money by working in a store in the evening, doing this out of friendship (and friendship may be based on athletic affinity)—is that "indirect compensation"? If a senior take an athletic freshman to room with him without exacting payment of room rent, is that "indirect compensation"? Can any authorities forbid such a deed of charity? If an alumnus engages an athletic sophomore to work for him during the summer at market rates, who can object? But how if the interest of the alumnus is based wholly on the expectation of future athletic distinction? No theological casuistry of the sixteenth century was ever more subtle or specious than that which college sport has produced. If the senior can not pay the freshman in any other way, he makes with him some preposterous wager and loses it. Thus the money has changed hands, but it can not be shown to be compensation for skill. The rules are regularly circumvented and faculties are out-

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witted with keen enjoyment. Sometimes the student, refusing to take the money himself, orders it sent to his father or brother. Why should we use soft words when facing such facts? We are living in a time when college athletics are honeycombed with falsehood, and when the professions of amateurism are usually hypocrisy. No college team ever meets another to-day with actual faith in the other's eligibility. At a recent baseball contest the captain of one team said to a friend of mine: "Do you see our aggregation out there? Hardly one of them is entitled to play under the rules." Every college player knows that the opposing team is disqualified, but no one will give evidence, for the reason that inhabitants of glass houses do not throw stones. When the evidence, however, becomes public and notorious, then with a flourish of trumpets the offending player is dropped, and having refurbished their reputation for athletic virtue, the teams go on until more evidence becomes public. The fine sense of personal honor, which would scorn to take advantage of an opponent by subterfuge, has been replaced by the ostentatious flinging of a sop to the Cerberus of public opinion.

The damaging results of all this in college life need not be pointed out. Young men trained in such devices can not be expected in after years to show great sensitiveness of conscience in the commercial or political arena. Men thoroughly instructed in the art of evading rules they do not like will not easily in later life be found in the ranks of municipal reform or civic virtue. If we allow them to remain in such conditions, can we ask that they become the moral leaders of their generation?

But the effect on our secondary schools is still more to be deprecated. If the letters that pass between college athletic managers and secondary schoolboys could be published, they would startle the country. Here is a specimen, one of thousands, written to the manager of a baseball team by a boy who was selecting his college:

DEAR SIR,—You said, "Come immediately." Now I can not come unless we can agree on the terms I telegraphed to you Wednesday; that is, all expenses during year, board, room, tuition, books, etc., and one hundred dollars besides. It would be only extra expense for me to go to see you unless you can comply with those terms, because I could not stay under any other conditions.

So, if those terms are satisfactory to you, just make out a statement signed by yourself and some member of the faculty, or some reliable business man in town, stating all the conditions and terms. I am also willing to sign an agreement. I have seen forms of college agreement for baseball this year, and it is so stated that nothing could be brought up against the school, even if the agreement should be exposed. Of course I must have something to show, that I may know just where I am. If you wish to do this I will come at once as soon as I receive the agreement.

Very truly yours,

———— ——————

Men trained in such methods through all the years of school and college life may become future leaders, but they will be leaders in the art of evading taxes, manipulating courts, and outwitting the law of the land. Yet this kind of correspondence is now carried on throughout the country. An athletic boy frequently writes to half a dozen colleges and selects the highest academic bidder. Every college president receives letters, stating what inducements have been offered elsewhere, and demanding in thinly veiled phraseology whether he is prepared to outbid his rivals. One of the professors in one of our leading universities has to-day in his possession a letter from a professor in another institution, offering to a promising athlete a guarantee of all expenses throughout his college course.

By a natural extension the same process is now used in drawing boys to secondary schools. The great private schools and academies send their representatives to the grammar schools to secure by pledges and agreements promising athletic material, which, after it has been duly trained, may be disposed of at advanced prices, to buyers in the college world.

After that college world is entered, the system is further extended to cover the exigencies of so-called "summer ball." Many students who must earn money in the summer find that by far the easiest way to do it is by playing on summer nines, usually for the entertainment of guests at hotels. For several years this practice has been growing, and with it has grown remarkable ingenuity in concealing financial results. Many a student receives from $30 to $50 per week for serving as waiter or bell boy in the hotel, while it so happens that he finds abundant

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leisure for playing ball before the hotel piazza. Sometimes, by the help of lawyers, a contract is drawn up with the proprietor, certifying that all compensation received was for work done in the hotel and none whatever for the innocent games of ball. Thus athletic authorities are either misled or rendered powerless. A student on one of these summer nines plays beside students from other colleges, and knows that they, like himself, are paid for furnishing sport. Yet when he meets those students on an opposing college team the next spring, he makes no protest.

Now, what can be done? If we can not return to the situation of thirty years ago, if we will not return to the open traffic of fifteen years ago, what can we do to escape from the prevalent subterfuge of to-day? Surely we shall not abandon athletic games and sports. They are vital to our future. They seem destined to play as large a part in the life of America as in ancient Greece or modern England. It is an ungracious task to point out weaknesses in what is essential to education. Let no abuses tempt us to give up or condemn college athletics. These sports develop discipline, coöperation, self-sacrifice, loyalty, devotion in extraordinary measure. We can not make men without them. We must not stand for a policy of obstruction and objurgation. But certain things are immediately necessary:

1. A careful and candid study of the facts by all college administrators and teachers. These facts will prove always interesting and often amazing. This work can not be turned over to former famous athletes as their province. It concerns every teacher in every department. Let us determine that we will not live in a "fools' paradise." Let us cease to cry: "Things may be wrong with you, but they are right with us." Things have been wrong everywhere. To acknowledge this frankly and publicly is the first step.

2. We need the united coöperative effort of the colleges. No one college can combat this evil successfully. It may valiantly start out, but if others refuse to join, the isolated institution has an impossible task on hand. No college can play ball alone. A common evil demands common action. The great good which has been accomplished through achieving a practically common standard of admission to our classrooms would be paralleled by the establishment of a common standard of admission to the athletic field. Especially do we need the help of our larger, older and more influential institutions. Under their leadership candor and honesty can be reëstablished. But if those institutions are solicitous only for their own athletic success, the college world will long continue to suffer.

3. This coöperation should first be in the direction of enforcing honestly the rules we already have, and then in the way of so changing those rules as to remove certain features of palpable injustice. Rules are means, not ends, and some of them may be better adapted to English than to American life. If a boy of fifteen runs in a race and wins a money prize, it is absurd and preposterous that he should lose his eligibility for life, and, because of one thoughtless act of boyhood, in itself morally innocent, should be forever excluded from representing any American college in any game. If a young student in an academy gives boxing lessons for money, it is doubtless necessary to declare him a professional player. But to say that that one athletic transgression of boyhood hath never forgiveness is to take a position intolerably Pharisaic. Many colleges are to-day demanding provision by which a student may recover eligibility that has been lost. Many cases of glaring injustice demand attention. How far it will be safe for the colleges together to modify their attitude on all these questions, we can not say. But through coöperative effort gradual reform at least is possible, and it is imperative.

What we really want is to create a spirit—when that is created, rules may be flung away—the spirit which distinguishes between work and play, between business and recreation, and resolutely refuses to turn friendly games into a system of trade. American students have gone as far as they can go in their endeavors. It now remains for college faculties to learn the facts, acknowledge them, change them, and turn athletic sports, so often now a training in collusion and evasion, into a training for citizenship, honorable public life, and the moral leadership of men.

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THE FIGHT TO SAVE KING COTTON

WHAT GOVERNMENT EXPERTS ARE DOING TO DESTROY THE BOLL WEEVIL

BY

C. ARTHUR WILLIAMS

IT seems almost inconceivable that the future of one of the greatest crops produced in the United States—a crop which annually brings something like a half billion dollars into the pockets of those who raise it—should depend on the tiny insect which has ever been pointed to as a model of industry and frugality. Yet this is held to be true of cotton by many scientists and practical farmers, who agree in the belief that we shall eventually lose our supremacy in the production of that staple unless the dreaded Mexican cotton boll weevil is exterminated; and, after operations extending over a period of ten years and costing thousands of dollars, the federal Department of Agriculture is of the opinion that the only present hope of ridding the country of the pest lies in a certain species of carnivorous and predaceous ant which was discovered in the wilds of Guatemala last spring.

According to a report recently issued by the census bureau the boll weevil, or *Anthonomus grandis,* as it is technically known, destroyed 739,360 bales of the Texas cotton crop last year. At ten cents a pound—and prices for futures went as high as eighteen cents during the late bull campaign—this amount of cotton would be worth $36,968,000. To this the value of the seed must be added, and the census bureau, after exhaustive research, fixes the total loss at $49,272,989.61. This represents the damage for only one year, it must be remembered, and the weevil has been in Texas more than ten years.

The total value of the agricultural products of the United States is approximately $5,000,000,000 each year. The total loss from the operations of destructive insects ranges from $30,000,000 to $400,000,000 per year. It may be averaged at $350,000,000, or seven per cent. The loss in cotton last year, therefore, was approximately one-seventh of the total loss sustained by all the crops of the country, and since the whole value of the cotton crop, roughly speaking, is $500,000,000 annually, or one-tenth the total value of all agricultural products, it will be seen that the damage to the South's principal staple was proportionately heavier than to the others, a fact that is all

THE WEEVIL AT WORK
The insert shown at the right is natural size

the more significant when it is remembered that the burden fell on the planters of a single state. To put it another way, the value of the cotton crop, compared with the value of all the crops, is as one to ten, while the damage to cotton in Texas from the Mexican boll weevil, as compared with the damage to all the crops from the dozens of entomological pests known to science, is as one to seven. If the cotton crop had had to bear only its

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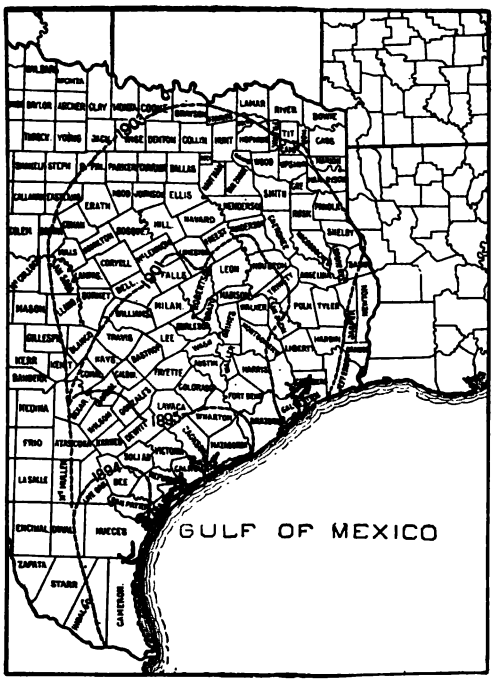
proportionate share of the loss the figures for last year would have been $35,000,000 instead of nearly $50,000,000.

The worst feature of the situation lies in the fact that the area infested by the weevil is constantly increasing, despite the long, hard fight that has been waged against the pest by the United States Department of Agriculture and the governments of Texas and other states. It is possible that the insect originated in Central America, but, while its early history is vague, authorities agree that for many years it was apparently confined to the region around Monclova, in the State of Coahuila, Mexico. There is fairly definite and reliable information to the effect that about 1848-50 it was so destructive there that the planting of cotton was entirely abandoned. Subsequently it spread over the whole of Mexico's cotton belt, and in the late eighties appeared in large numbers in the vicinity of Matamoras, State of Tamaulipas, just across the Rio Grande from Brownsville, Texas. Early in the following decade it crossed the river and by 1895 had progressed 150 miles northward into Texas. Then it was that the attention of the Department of Agriculture was directed toward it and



MAP SHOWING THE ENLARGING AREA OF CROP DAMAGE IN TEXAS

cotton planters in the territory contiguous to that it was ravaging began to be disturbed by the prospects of general damage. In the ten years that have since elapsed the pest has steadily continued its advance. During the crop season of 1903 it was found on the banks of Red River, over five hundred miles, in a straight line, north of the point where it entered Texas. and the region affected by it reached from Sabine parish, Louisiana, on the east, to San Saba and Brown counties, Texas, some three hundred and fifty miles to the west. Of the 178 cotton-producing counties in Texas, ninety-six had the weevil and most of those in which it did not appear raise only comparatively small amounts of the staple.

The natural habit of the weevil is to travel slowly from field to field, but it is frequently carried about in cotton seed and its progress is thus greatly accelerated. So far no satisfactory and practicable method of eradicating it has been discovered. Poisons and insecticides are all more or less ineffective, because the larvæ and pupæ form within the bolls and can not be reached, and it is practically impossible to spray large fields in such a way as to affect the adult bugs. For a long time the expert entomologists of the Department of Agriculture have been searching for a parasite or predatory insect which could be used against the weevil, but until a few months ago all efforts in this direction were wholly unavailing. It was in May last that O. F. Cook, an agent of the bureau of plant industry, reported from Sepacuite, in the interior of Guatemala, the discovery of a large, reddish brown ant, known among the native Indians as the "*kelep,*" or "helper." This insect, he said, destroyed the weevil in large numbers without doing the slightest harm to vegetation or to useful insects. Under orders from Secretary of Agriculture Wilson, Dr. Cook immediately took several colonies of the ants to Texas, and, in conjunction with the department experts already in the field there, commenced a series of exhaustive experiments in an effort to determine whether they could be put to practical use in the fight against the weevil. An interesting feature of this stage of the proceedings was a legal injunction against the "planting" of the

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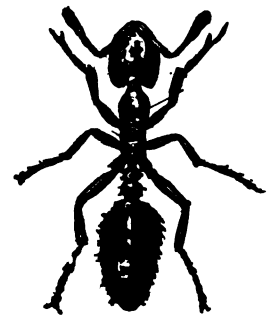
DR. O. F. COOK
Who discovered the Guatemalan Ant (Ectatoma tuberculatum)

keleps in the cotton fields. This was secured by several prominent planters on the ground that the ant might prove to be as troublesome and destructive a pest as the weevil, and, while it was ultimately dissolved, it is obvious that many practical farmers still regard the introduction of the new insect as anything but an unmixed blessing.

Eventually Dr. Cook was assigned temporarily to the bureau of entomology and given complete charge of the ant experiments. It was soon demonstrated that the *kelep* would kill the weevil without damaging the cotton plant or other vegetation in any way, and that its habits and temperament were such as to make it readily capable of domestication, transportation and colonization in Texas. The most important problems, however, are yet unsolved. It remains to be determined whether the ant can survive the winter climate of Texas, and whether it can be obtained or propagated in sufficient numbers to serve the practical purpose for which it was introduced.

The experts of the Department of Agriculture are more or less divided on these vital issues. All of them regard Dr. Cook's discovery as extremely interesting and worthy of the fullest possible investigation, but by many of them the ultimate success of any effort to drive out the weevil with the ant is seriously doubted. The ability or inability of the *kelep* to withstand the Texas winters can not be demonstrated before next spring, and even though the experiments in this direction prove wholly successful, it will still remain to be seen if the ant will multiply with sufficient rapidity to do any appreciable amount of good, and, if not, whether it can be secured and imported in sufficiently large numbers to make up for the slowness of propagation here. Of course the failure of the whole scheme is certain if the ant can not hibernate in Texas, for, no matter how numerous it is in Guatemala, it would be manifestly impossible to obtain and bring in enough each year to combat the weevil in anything more than a very limited area. It is obvious, therefore, that many months and perhaps several years must elapse before the practical utility of the one insect as an enemy of the other can be demonstrated, if it is to be demonstrated at all. The Department of Agriculture shows its appreciation of this fact by urging the cotton planters not to depend on whatever promises the discovery of the *kelep* holds forth, but to unremittingly wage the war of extermination along other lines.



GUATEMALAN ANT
Greatly enlarged

Dr. L. O. Howard, chief of the department's bureau of entomology, is one of the experts who have no confident hope of the successful use of the ant against the weevil. He so expressed himself when Dr. Cook's discovery was first announced, and has not changed his opinion since. In fact, entomologists generally do not hesitate to predict that eventually the *Anthonomus grandis* will spread over the entire cotton belt. In his last official report W. D. Hunter, the entomologist in charge of the general campaign in Texas, said:

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A TYPICAL COTTON FIELD, UNAFFECTED BY THE WEEVIL
Showing the open bolls just before picking

ANOTHER COTTON FIELD, RUINED BY THE BOLL WEEVIL
Practically every one of the thousands of plants has been blighted by the pest

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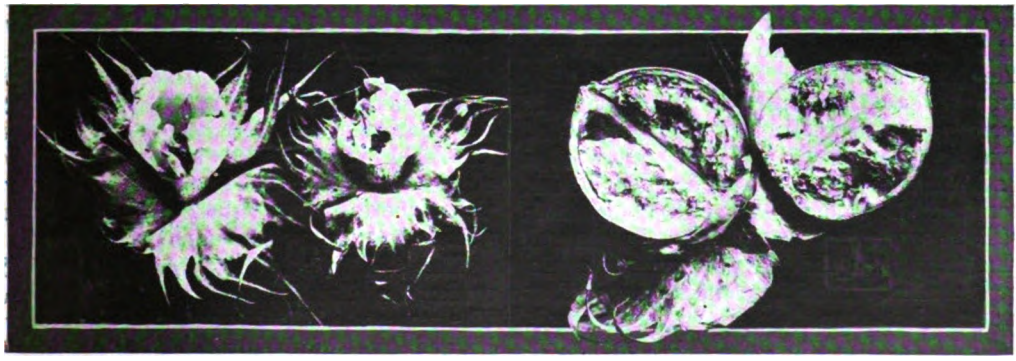
CAGES ERECTED IN THE FIELDS
Selected cotton plants are isolated for close study

ONE OF THE CAGED COTTON PLANTS
The tags are attached to each boll for daily record of observations

"Basing estimates on a careful study of the distance the boll weevil has traveled each year, it seems safe to predict that in from fifteen to eighteen years the pest will be found throughout the cotton belt. During the time it has been in Texas there has been no tendency toward dying out, and in south Texas it is practically as troublesome as it was in 1895. In Mexico, where it has existed for a much longer period, it is apparently as plentiful as ever. Conditions will now favor a rapid extension into the Red River Valley, in Louisiana, and likewise there seems no doubt that the spread will be rapid in the Yazoo Valley, in Mississippi. In most other situations throughout the belt the cotton fields are smaller and more isolated than in Texas; consequently it is to be supposed that the spread of the pest will be retarded somewhat there."

Secretary Wilson visited Texas last fall and expressed the opinion that all the money in the treasury would not extirpate the pernicious insect. That, however, was before the discovery of the *kelep,* in which the Secretary has much faith.

The cotton belt states which are closest to Texas are thoroughly alarmed over the situation and several of them have taken vigorous steps to prevent the threatened invasion. Georgia, South Carolina and Mississippi have acted and a special session of the Louisiana legislature was held last winter for the sole purpose of meeting the conditions brought about by the nearness of the pest. The result was the enactment of a law appropriating a sum of money and creating a boll weevil commission with power to proceed in whatever manner it deemed best to keep the insect out of the state. The plan adopted by the commission includes the establishment of a quarantine strip along the western border of Louisiana. The farmers in this zone, which is some twenty miles wide, are not permitted to plant cot-



EXTERIOR AND INTERIOR OF BOLLS DAMAGED BY WEEVILS

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DR. L. O. HOWARD

Chief of Bureau of Entomology, Department of Agriculture, at the head of the fight against the boll weevil. He is not confident of success in the Guatemalan ant experiment.

ton and every effort has been made to prevent the importation of infected seed. There are no restrictions on the growing of other crops, and a fixed price per annum is paid by the commission for each acre from which cotton is barred. A small colony of the weevils was discovered at the Audubon Park experiment farm, New Orleans, last year, but it was exterminated and the bugs have not reappeared in that vicinity.

The State of Texas has also legislated against the weevil, but unavailingly. It was advised to act as early as 1895, but it waited until 1898, when its legislature passed a bill creating the position of state entomologist. A campaign against the weevil was carried on under the direction of this official for two or three years and the farmers who had scoffed at what they were pleased to call the "bugologist" were made to realize the importance of the application of scientific knowledge and common sense to the problem which confronted them. The entomologist is still at work, but is no longer in general charge, as the federal government again took control when it became apparent that states other than Texas were threatened. Last year the Texas legislature enacted a law setting aside in the state treasury the sum of $50,000 to be given as a prize to any one bringing forward a practical and effectual method of getting rid of the troublesome and costly bug. A commission was created and its members made trips through the state to inspect the actual workings of many of the plans submitted. That was months ago and the $50,000 is still untouched. Two devout persons among the hundreds who communicated with the commissioners expressed the conviction that the weevil's ravages could only be checked by a miracle, and urged the governor to set aside certain days for general prayer for the interposition of Providence. Most of the suggestions, however, had more of a worldly flavor.

When the Fifty-eighth Congress met Representatives and Senators from all the cotton-growing states joined those from Texas in an effort to secure governmental appropriations to be used in the fight against the weevil. The original idea was to set aside a full half million dollars and put it in the hands of a commission with power to act. There were vague hints of graft in this, though, and subsequently the plan was changed and a bill placing $250,000 at the disposal of the Secretary of Agriculture was passed. There was some trifling opposition to this measure, but it was easily disposed of when attention was called to the facts in the case. The President considered the situation so serious that he made a specific recommendation for relief of some kind in his regular annual message, and the Southerners were able to demonstrate that the question was unique and one which affected the whole of the civilized world. The growing of cotton is confined to a comparatively small area at present, they pointed out, and it was not certain that this area could be extended. Any material cutting down of the cotton crop, therefore, meant that prices would go so high as to put the manufactured product quite out of the reach of the poorer classes, and these classes would perforce suffer severely, since there is no substitute for cotton goods at anything like equal cost.

The $250,000 is now being expended under the direction of Secretary Wilson. The experts of the bureau of entomology, headed by Chief Howard and Assistant Chief Marlatt, had been studying the

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weevil ever since it first came to the attention of the department as an important enemy of the cotton crop, in 1894, and as they had much authoritative data at hand it was not nearly so difficult to map out a plan for the campaign as it might have been under other circumstances. The investigations already made had convinced the department officials that the best way of operating against the pest was to bring new and improved cultural methods into use and to induce the planters to practice diversification of crops. It was clearly shown that the application of insecticides was regarded as purely incidental. Entomologist Hunter was instructed to locate fifteen demonstration farms in the infected region in Texas, and on these agents of the department, during the past season, conducted experiments in early planting and up-to-date culture, at the same time giving the near-by farmers every opportunity to observe and be instructed. Other agents traveled over the state and delivered lectures on the weevil to gatherings of planters. Official bulletins, showing the progress of the work, were issued at intervals. Broadly speaking, the department's idea is to impress the growers with the necessity of planting the right kind of seed, of getting the crop matured and picked before the weevil can do its work, and of depriving the pest of sustenance by planting crops other than cotton, on none of which it will feed. Most of the farmers have little or no faith in the weevil-killing ant. Some of them prefer to rely on insecticides, but a large majority favors improved cultural methods, along the lines suggested by the department. Through such methods they hope to raise at least average crops despite the weevil.

The prospects of smaller crops and proportionately higher prices have had the effect of causing those foreign countries which depend on the United States for their raw cotton supplies to pay marked attention to the possibility of growing the staple on their own account. The weevil's work last season helped Messrs. Sully, Brown and the others in their bull campaign, and the result was that values were forced up to levels not known since the Civil War. The spinners abroad were caught and lost heavily. Naturally, they commenced to think about the advantages

BEVERLY T. GALLOWAY
Chief, Bureau of Plant Industry, Department of Agriculture

of independent supplies, particularly since it seemed obvious to them that if the weevil continued to spread the time might eventually come when the United States crop would be very largely reduced, if not almost wholly wiped out. The press and the lawmaking bodies took the matter up and for some time past systematic efforts at cotton growing on a large scale have been made by Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Austria and perhaps some others. Several of these countries have prohibited the importation of American cotton seed. Africa and Australia are the fields wherein the most extensive operations are being conducted. The German government recently sent clear to Texas to engage the services of a practical cotton farmer to take charge of its work, and southern Negroes have been taken to several of the scenes of activity. Practically every mail brings to the Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington a report from some consul telling of favorable progress in the efforts which, if completely successful, are expected by those behind them to make the cotton consumers of the old world independent of the United States.

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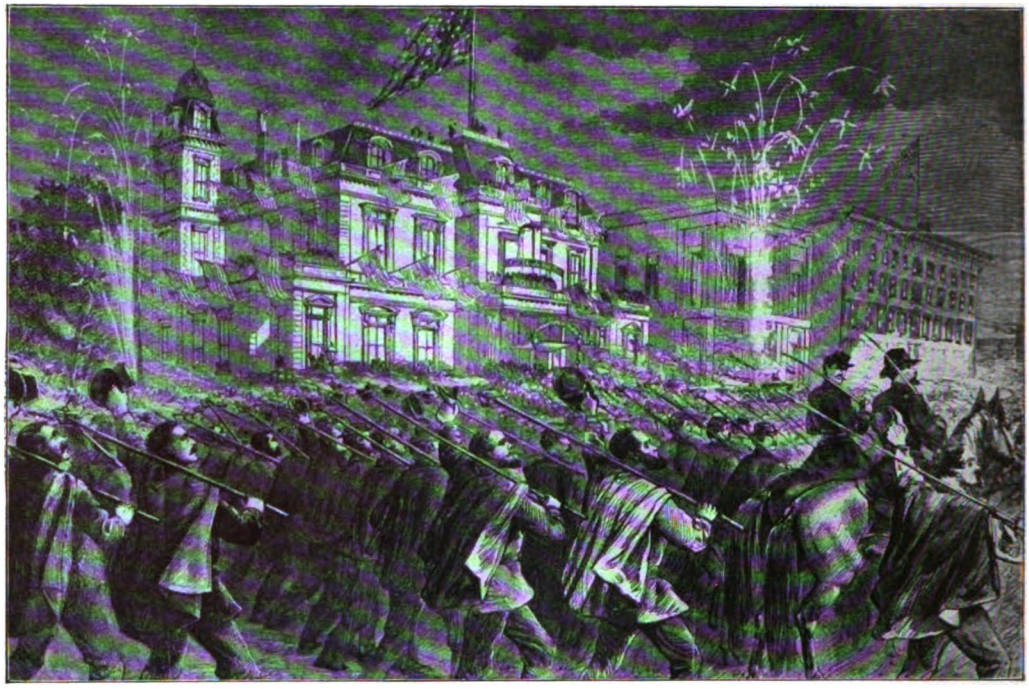

A CAMPAIGN PARADE SOON AFTER THE WAR

THE AMENITIES OF A PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN

BY

FRANCIS W. SHEPARDSON

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF AMERICAN HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

WHEN President Jackson made a tour through New England in the summer of 1832, among the places visited was Attleborough, Massachusetts, famous for its jewelry manufactories. As he was being shown through one of the establishments, the manager said to him: "You have been interfering with our business, Mr. President, and should feel bound in honor to take these buttons off our hands," at the same time producing cards of buttons, each of which was stamped with a palmetto tree. These had been ordered by the Nullifiers of South Carolina as distinguishing badges, but had been rendered worthless by the President's proclamation of 1832. Josiah Quincy, who tells the incident, describes the amusement of Jackson in finding that treason in Carolina had commercial value in Massachusetts.

The story has its interest even now in showing how early the button was in use as an emblem, and in suggesting how much Americans have always been given to displaying symbols of such sort in times of political activity. The black cockade of the Federalist and the tricolor of the Democratic-Republican, worn before the Second War with England, were forerunners of the great profusion of emblematic insignia which now marks a spirited political campaign. When the war was over, and zeal for American development succeeded the old-time sympathy with England or France, the same love of display was indicated by the ap-

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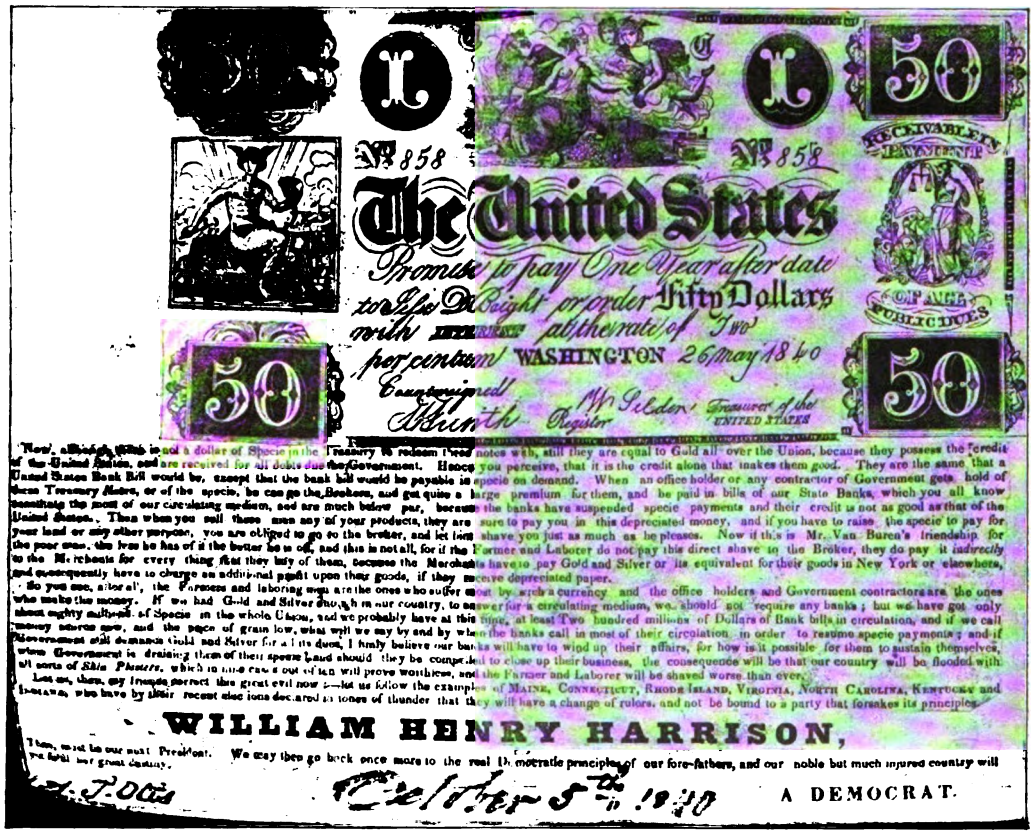
pearance of red and white roses worn together to bear testimony that the "war of the roses" was past and "the era of good feelings" was at hand.

There were lively times in politics when Thomas Jefferson's election to the presidency was assured. All the combined bitterness of the fiercest modern struggle can not compare with the malignant vindictiveness of that day. Dickey Strop advertised that he was obliged to put up the price of shaving, since Federalist faces had grown so long after the result of the election was known. The Washington *Federalist* changed its motto from "*E pluribus unum*" to "*Plura in uno.*" "The price of whiskey and gin has gone up fifty per cent since the election" declared another Federalist organ. A fine thing, indeed, that an atheist has been chosen chief magistrate of a Christian nation! What a beautiful combination—Jefferson and Burr—the free thinker and the libertine! Such were some of the pleasantries of the time. In mountain regions it was said that there were rumblings and quakings. Even the earth was shocked by the defeat of Adams. The church bell in Pittsfield, Massachusetts, was broken by enthusiastic Republicans celebrating the victory of their party. Never mind! Jefferson will pay for it with one of his slaves. The other side had its expressions, too. The War Department building burns. It is "Federal bonfire, number one." The Treasury building takes fire. It is "Federal bonfire number two." The rascals are trying to cover up their defalcations and steals. And President Adams, angry and dissatisfied, drives away for his Quincy home in the midnight darkness, refusing to grace with his presence the inauguration of his hated rival.

But after all of the bitter personalities of the early days, so long as the management of affairs remained in the hands of a few; when state legislatures often



A CAMPAIGN BROADSIDE OF 1840
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chose the presidential electors; and when three Virginia neighbors could parcel out the presidency among them for terms of eight years each, there was little occasion for special excitement and small chance for the display of enthusiasm.

The fun really began with the "scrub race for the presidency" in 1824, when the "Virginia Dynasty" drew near its end, and the West indicated its intention to take a hand in national politics. Then tradition and precedent and ceremonial form gave place to the power of the democratic sentiment which had been pushing its way to the front for a quarter of a century. At such a time, when leaders differed but little in their views upon public questions of moment, personal characteristics were all powerful, and incipient parties formed around individuals whose merits and demerits afforded material for campaign purposes. The individual character of the fight in 1824 was indicated by the merchants, who advertised the receipt from France of a fine lot of silk vestings, stamped with pretty good likenesses of Adams or Clay or Jackson. Considering the old-fashioned swallow-tailed coat worn by gentlemen of the time, the wearing of such a vest was a bold declaration of one's preference. One campaign on personal lines soon made personal arguments familiar to the people. When the Jacksonian era opened and the poor-boy-grown-famous idea became common, along with the Indian fighters, millboys of the slashes, wagoner-boys, tanner-boys, rail-splitters and canal-boat mule drivers, came coonskin hats and log cabins and cider barrels and a thousand and one other peculiar and characteristic emblems designed to arouse the enthusiasm of the partisan and catch the fancy of the populace.

With this manifestation of the interest and power of democracy came also the introduction of the national political convention and the consequent more definite organization of party machinery, until the old-fashioned after-dinner nomination of the Federalist and the more representatice Congressional caucus of the Demo-

A HARRISON LOG CABIN

This cabin, of the campaign of 1888, reproduces the Harrison log cabins of the campaign of William H. Harrison in 1840. The group of men all voted for the elder Harrison in 1840 and for his grandson in 1888. All are now dead but one.

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cratic-Republican alike gave place to gatherings of the masses and to the rule of the triumphant people. Looking back to this period it is surprising to find what a prolific parent American politics has been, when it is noted that a special literature has been written and a peculiarly interesting vocabulary developed, and when a reader's handbook is needed for correctly understanding the many apt mottoes, phrases, party cries and emblems which have done service in political campaigns during the last seventy-five years.

The new conditions made themselves felt in the campaign of 1828, John Quincy Adams and Andrew Jackson being the opposing candidates. No possible charge was omitted nor was any subject too delicate to be dragged to light. Adams was accused of being a Federalist rather than a Democrat; he was a monarchist; he had been educated in courts; he had fed at the public crib too long; he had drawn immense sums of public money in salaries; he was haughty; he was selfish; he was not on good terms with his honored father; he had married an English woman; he was poor; he was rich; he had put a billiard table into the White House at public expense; he did not wear a collar and a necktie during the summertime; he had given up a young American servant girl to the Emperor of Russia; he had sent out government employes to work for his reëlection; he had corrupted the civil service, and he patronized duelists. This last charge referred to Henry Clay, and seems strange, inasmuch as his opponent had an unenviable reputation in the same line, still carrying in his body a bullet which he had received in a shooting affray. Then it was declared that Adams was a Unitarian, which dreadful accusation brought forth a statement that he attended a Presbyterian church, of which he was a trustee, and to which he had contributed $1,800. The old soldiers were appealed to by a cartoon which represented Adams with a horsewhip driving away a comrade who had dared to speak to him to ask alms. The 1904 method of reading President Roosevelt's books to find attacks upon Democratic Presidents of the past and to discover impiety in a reference to Biblical use of the words sheep and lambs in "Hunting Trips of a Ranchman" were foreshadowed in examination of Adams' voluminous writings to find among other things of wickedness a scurrilous poem about Thomas Jefferson.

The whole life history of General Jackson was dressed up for campaign purposes. He was accused of every crime in the calendar, murder and treason included. His duels, barroom fights and frequent quarrels were recalled. The virtue of his wife was impugned and the memory of his dead mother assailed. His friendship for Aaron Burr and his military executions in the South and Southwest were recounted. Handbills were printed upon which, under the representation of a coffin, these bloody deeds were described. A new feature appeared in the shape of the campaign newspaper, *We the People* and the *Anti-Jackson Expositor* being precursors of the more famous *Log Cabin* issued by Horace Greeley in 1840. Still another feature was an argument designed to appeal to the illiterate and the sentimental alike. This was a tall hickory pole erected at every Jackson center, the soubriquet "Old Hickory" having been given to the hero of New Orleans for some reason not exactly clear in the presence of conflicting accounts. The opposition very soon adopted the ash pole as an emblem, the Ashland home of Henry Clay suggesting the variety of tree.

A CARTOON OF THE McCLELLAN CAMPAIGN
Harper's Weekly, October 8, 1864

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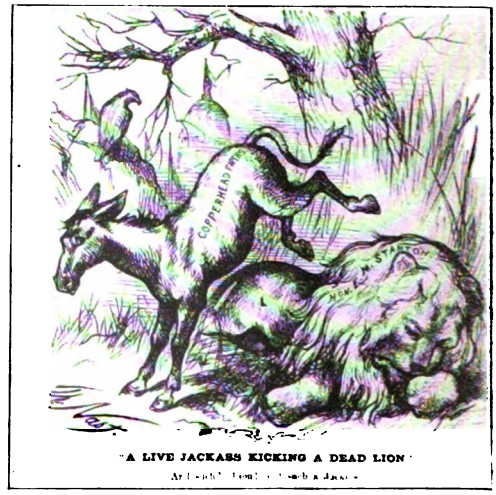
FIRST USE OF THE REPUBLICAN ELEPHANT
Harper's Weekly, November 21, 1874

In 1832, with Clay trying to defeat Jackson, almost every phase of a modern presidential campaign was marked. Clay represented the educated and the conservative. He had the support of the Bank of the United States and of most of the wealth of the country. A whole library of pamphlets was printed and distributed. Banquets innumerable and speeches by great orators supplemented the work of the campaign newspapers. Caricature was largely employed. Van Buren as an infant in Jackson's arms received food from a spoon; Jackson accepted a crown from Van Buren and a scepter from the devil; Clay and Jackson, dressed as jockeys, are riding a race, Clay half a length ahead; Jackson, Van Buren, Benton and others, in the garb of burglars, are trying to break down the door of the bank; Jackson, as Don Quixote, attacks the great marble home of the bank and breaks his feeble lance against it.

The Jackson men made much of processions where banners and transparencies and torches accompanied long hickory poles, which, upon eight wheels, drawn by eight horses, were taken to the place for the raising. Occasionally a live eagle hoisted on a stick was carried along like a Roman standard of old. Three, six or nine cheers for Jackson alternated with a like number of groans for the other side. Incidentally the gambling spirit asserted itself, and sporting men openly registered large bets on the result, while here and there some enthusiastic Clay man swore that he would never shave or have his hair cut again until his favorite was elected President. The reading and thinking men of the country were largely on Clay's side, and their confidence in the outcome was that of assurance. They very soon learned, what campaign managers ever since have clearly recognized, that a taking emblem, a catchy cry, a stirring song, a striking caricature, or a big procession have potent influence over thousands of voters, who are too ignorant or too indifferent to read argument, or too prejudiced to believe it, even if read.

The famous campaign of 1840 illustrated this. The country was in the grasp of hard times. Thousands of men were out of work, and many had lost their fortunes in forced bankruptcy. These found relief for their feelings in swelling the Harrison processions and gatherings where no attempt was made to count, but the measurement was by acres, in singing Harrison songs and in shouting for reform. The plan of campaign was



FIRST APPEARANCE OF THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY
Harper's Weekly, January 15, 1870

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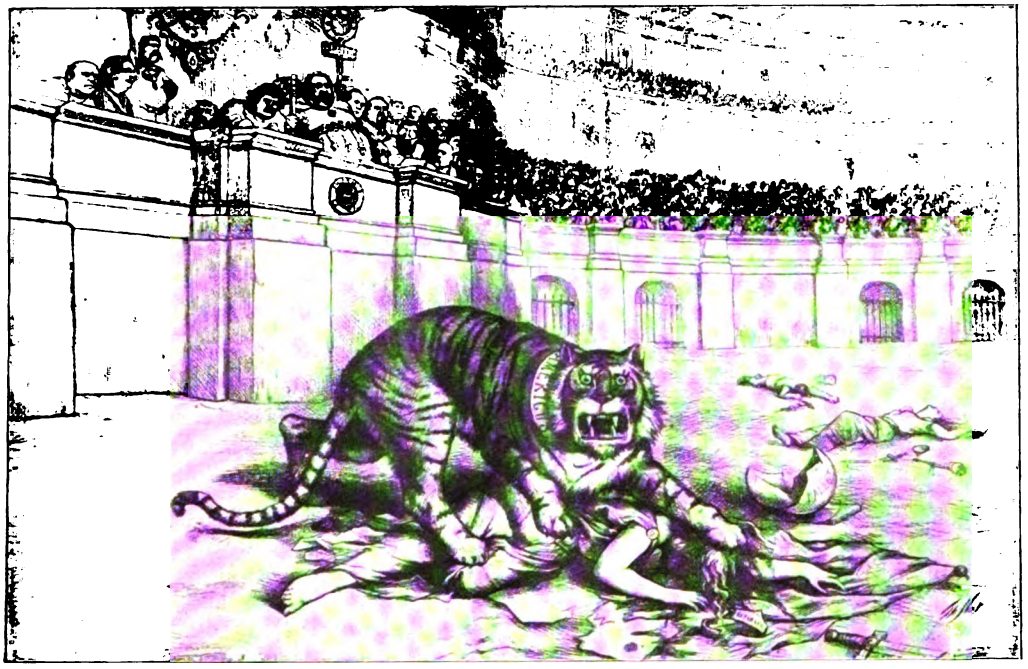

THE TAMMANY TIGER FIRST APPEARS IN CARICATURE
Nast's famous cartoon in *Harper's Weekly*, November 11, 1871

indicated at the start. The leading newspaper gave twenty-three closely printed columns to a report of the nominating convention, and of these fifteen were used to describe the procession. As Von Holst puts it, "Men did not try to awaken thought, to form and obtain well-grounded convictions. They argued through the senses, and made proselytes by the contagious influence exercised by the jubilation of compact masses." A Democratic newspaper correspondent had sneered at General Harrison, saying, "Give him a barrel of cider, and settle a pension of two thousand dollars a year upon him, and he will sit the remainder of his days contented in a log cabin." Some happy observer in the West seized upon the unfortunate sneer. To ridicule the log cabin, in which every Western man was born, ill became the representatives of the democracy of Andrew Jackson. From that moment the log cabin became the symbol of the Whigs. Log cabins were set upon wheels and drawn in processions, a cider barrel near the door, a coonskin upon the wall, the latchstring hanging out upon the door, sometimes a foxy face in a trap in the window, with the attached legend, "Kinderhood Kandidate Kant Kome it Kwite." A big broom near by indicated the clean sweep which Harrison would make. Large log cabins were built in the cities as rallying places for the faithful, inside which cider was freely dispensed to all comers. Ardent politicians wore log-cabin buttons and smoked log-cabin cigars. Even laundresses advertised that they would do up shirts in approved log-cabin style.

Another Democratic editor, with ironical intent, dubbed Harrison, "the hero of Tippecanoe," for it was common talk that the Whigs had been casting about for some cheap imitation of the hero of New Orleans, and the opposition took delight in referring to the "superannuated old woman," "the red-petticoat general," "the hero of forty defeats." The Whigs seized upon the ironical title and forthwith "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too," became their rallying cry. Tippecanoe song-books were sold by the thousands. There were Tippecanoe badges, Tippecanoe banners, Tippecanoe handkerchiefs, Tippecanoe flags, Tippecanoe medals, Tippecanoe almanacs and Tippecanoe shaving-soap.

A short time before, another Democrat,

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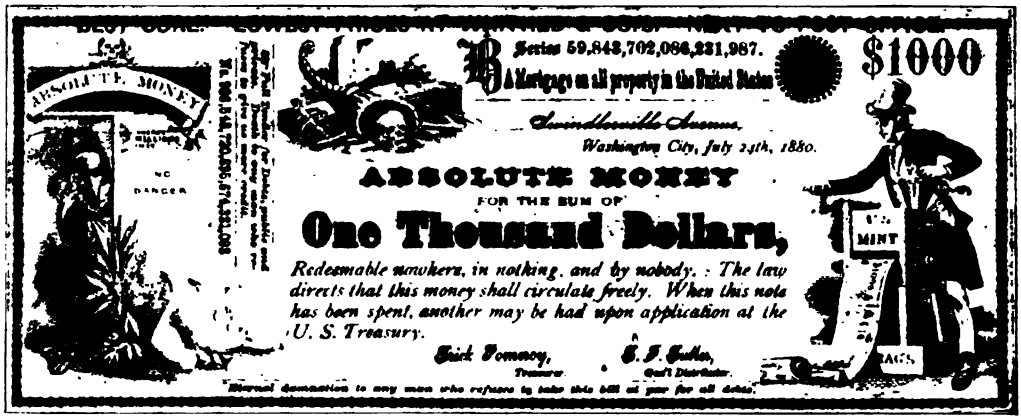

THE GREENBACK ISSUE IN THE CAMPAIGN OF 1880
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Thomas H. Benton, in the United States Senate, while speaking on his resolution to expunge the record of censure of Andrew Jackson and recounting his interest in this measure from the start, used the words, "Solitary and alone, and amid the jeers and taunts of my opponents, I put this ball in motion. The people have taken it up and rolled it forward, and I am no longer anything but a unit in the vast mass which now propels it." Some Whig saw the value of the suggestion and the Harrison ball was the result, the campaign poet quickly asserting:

This Democratic ball
Set rolling on by Benton,
Is on another track
From that it first was sent on.

One of these balls was rolled from the Ohio to Baltimore and another from the Mississippi through the gulf states to the Atlantic, the most famous campaign song, to the tune of the "Little Pig's Tail," having allusion to this emblem in the stanza:

Oh what has caused this great commotion, motion motion, the country through?
It is the ball a-rolling on
For Tippecanoe and Tyler too
For Tippecanoe and Tyler too
And with them we will beat little Van, Van Van is a used-up man.
And with them we will beat little Van.

The mottoes upon these balls were as influential as the songs, familiar ones being: "May times improve as on we move." "Farewell, dear Van, you're not the man." "To guide the ship, we'll try Old Tip." "With Tip and Tyler we'll burst Van's biler." "Matty's policy: Fifty cents a day and French soup; Our policy: Two dollars a day and roast beef."

The White House had recently been renovated, and some one who recalled the billiard-table episode in the Adams campaign looked up the bills. Splendid material for campaign purposes was found and at once thousands of pamphlets were circulated bearing some such title as, "An Address, Showing by Well Authenticated Documents the Wasteful and Extravagant Manner in which the President and His Subordinate Officers Have Been Squandering the People's Money." Among the silverware listed was a lot of spoons with gold bowls. This item cost the Democrats many a vote, the nabob drinking his soup from a gold spoon contrasting unfavorably with the homely farmer of North Bend. Public land was selling for a dollar an acre, and such representations as the following made splendid political argument: "Here you see your President expending the proceeds of ten thousand acres of the public domain for a service of dinner plate. Ten thousand more gone for carpets, ten thousand more gone for looking-glasses." The climax always came when bills were read, showing outlays for finger-bowls, for hemming dishrags and for strainer cloths.

If the orator, after portraying the military achievements of General Harrison were asked to describe Van Buren's battles, he told of the three great engagements in which the President had taken part. "Van Buren fought General Cur-

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rency and defeated him; he fought General Commerce, and defeated him; and with his Cuban allies he fought the Seminoles and was defeated." The Cuban allies were bloodhounds, used to track the Indians through the Florida swamps, and the allusion with the reference to the hard times put the crowd in a good humor to hear about their candidate from the glee club, which sang:

Did you ever hear of a hero
Whose home is in the West?
Of all the men for President
The wisest and the best.
To put him in the White House
We know an excellent way.
Oh! we'll sing a Harrison song by night
And vote for him by day.

Subsequent campaigns have not varied much from this one, so far as methods of arousing enthusiasm are concerned, although the invention of the telegraph and telephone, the improvement of postal and railway facilities, the development of newspapers, the increased skill in the manufacture of pyrotechnics, the growth of large cities and modern advances generally have brought their suggestions of new ways of reaching the voters and have largely increased the possibilities of efficient campaign work.

The introduction of the slavery question into politics, and the several steps in the expansion of the union, meant new party cries and new mottoes and emblems, but the arguments of the spellbinders of the day much resemble present arguments, and often the exact words of modern Democratic orators may be reproduced from old-time Federalist or Whig speeches of earlier days.

Some of the interesting features of later years deserve special mention. The campaign of 1844 was a spirited one in which the result was long in doubt, owing to the fact that at that time the states did not all hold the presidential election on the same day. Now Clay was ahead, now Polk, and when the latter was finally secure, it was possible to find a dozen places where Clay might have won, had it not been for some particular circumstance. His "Alabama Letter," in which he stated his views on the annexation of Texas, lost him enough anti-slavery votes to turn the tide. The American people may never make a mystery President, but there have been a number of occasions when candidates would have done much better, had they copied the sphinx more closely. Sometimes such letters have been genuine, sometimes spurious, like the "Morey Letter" in the Garfield campaign, but they have been effective for or against the candidate with whom they were identified.

The campaign of 1844 also brought one of the most famous party cries, apt alliteration's artful aid and the jingoism together making "Fifty-four Forty or Fight!" a stirring slogan, whose full effect is best gained, when it is used in marching, just as "Blaine! Blaine! James G. Blaine!" or "Left! Left! Grover Cleveland's left!" were in 1884.

The liveliest times, 1840 alone excepted, were witnessed in the Fremont campaign of 1856. The newest thing was the staccato cheer, now so popular in college circles, "Freesoil! Freespeech! and Fremont! F-R-E-M-O-N-T!" being a favorite cry. This cry found a forerunner in the most striking utterance of any American political platform, the last plank framed by the Free-Soil convention of 1848, "*Resolved,* That we inscribe on our banner, 'Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Labor and Free Men,' and under it we will fight on and fight ever, until a triumphant victory shall reward our exertions."

The campaign procession was somewhat changed by an innovation of 1860, when what were called Wideawake clubs were organized. The members were uniformed with cap and cape made of glazed or enameled cloth of various colors, buff, white, black or yellow as desired. Bearing aloft lantern torches they marched along, reproducing features of the zouave drill lately exhibited in the cities, and cheering with the sharp staccato which had proved so effective in 1856. The disappearance of the old-fashioned "hurrah" or three cheers was no greater change than the improvement in uniforms, as one may judge from a humorous statement of B. P. Shillaber in his "Reminiscences," about the campaign of 1840:

Then the unction of train oil infused its influence to make the movement go easier, and no processionist, either principal or proxy, escaped with less than the spoiling of two or three coats during one campaign. The torch has lost its power as an illuminator of principles since 1860, when caps

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and capes were introduced and prettiness superseded vim, for it needed a strong backing of principle to carry a torch that was pouring a flood of superfluous oil down one's back.

The campaign of 1860, despite the tremendous results which depended upon it, was not so spirited as that of 1856, although Douglas established the precedent of a candidate taking the stump in his own behalf, and, according to the New York *Tribune,* there were as many speeches made by the representatives of the four parties in the field as were made in all the previous campaigns from 1789 to 1856, inclusive. At the same time the circulation of speeches, campaign lies and pamphlets was not large. In Boston a rail-splitter's battalion made a hit in a procession, the men in it averaging six feet two inches in height.

The emblems having a personal significance have been largely laid aside in recent years, the bandanna handkerchief of the "Old Roman," Allen G. Thurman, and the Rough Rider campaign uniform being exceptions; and the familiar emblems are those of party. These are largely due to the facile pencil of Thomas Nast, whose work in caricature for *Harper's Weekly* during the seventies made his name a household word. To him we owe the elephant of the Republican, the donkey of the Democrat and the Tammany tiger. The ringing phrase "the grand old party," used with loving inflection by the Republican orators for a time, became ridiculous when reduced to G. O. P. and displayed on the howdah of a lumbering elephant. The donkey was used on a copper token, issued in the first year of Van Buren's term, the penny showing the patient animal with extended feet ambling along, the accompanying legend reading: "I follow in the footsteps of my illustrious predecessor." It was Nast, however, who used the donkey, first as a representation of the copperhead press and later as the emblem of democracy which is now the common property of political caricaturists. The tiger's head was the emblem of the "Big Six" fire company of New York, of which Boss Tweed was the foreman. Nast added a body and fixed it for all time as the symbol of Tammany. Outside of these three creations of Nast, the Democratic rooster is the most familiar. This originated in 1842 with the editor of the Indianapolis *Sentinel.* His Whig rival having used a heading, "Crow, Chapman, Crow," to an article claiming that the returns did not justify the assertion of Democratic success, when the result was finally known to be a victory for that party, Mr. Chapman printed his paper with a cut of a big rooster upon it, with the words underneath, "We Crow." Since that time no well-regulated Democratic newspaper office, especially in the country, has been complete without a whole coopful of rooster cuts for campaign use.

To describe the various organizations of voters which have had place in American politics would bring to light many an interesting tale, the very names being suggestive, such as Albany Regency, Locofocos, Barnburners, Hunkers, Bucktails, Half-breeds, Stalwarts, Mossbacks, Kids, Hards, Softs, Mugwumps, Silver Grays, and the better-known party terminology, Whig, Democrat, Republican, Know Nothing.

A like attractiveness attaches to the language of politics, which has drawn upon many a profession and craft for its expressive words. Such terms as log-rolling, pipelaying, wirepulling, ring, pull, primary, platform, plank, machine, boom, caucus, still hunt, straddle, stump, war horse, run, spoils, barrel, boodle, boss and wigwam have a political meaning far different from their original import, and in almost every instance their transfer to the field of politics has been accompanied by some incident well worth recalling.

Mr. Defrees, long the public printer, once took occasion to suggest to President Lincoln that the phrase "sugar-coated" was all right for a stump speech or a campaign document, but was not becoming or dignified in an important state paper that would be part of the history of the nation. "Well, Defrees," said Mr. Lincoln, "if you think the time will ever come when the people will not understand what 'sugar-coated' means, I'll alter it; otherwise I think I'll let it go." Such an idea is behind all the campaign emblems, mottoes and cries. The people can understand their meaning without much study, and the people are best reached and most easily moved by those things which appeal to their instant perception.

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"GOOD SOCIETY" AND DIVORCE

BY

ELLEN M. HENROTIN

HONORARY PRESIDENT OF THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS

THE writer of this short article knows how white is the page on which is written large the fair records of American family life, to which men and women have equally contributed. Here a side is presented which constitutes a possible future danger and which it may be wise to consider before it is too late.

In a large Eastern city, at a luncheon given by a young and attractive woman whose name is well known in society, the subject of divorce was introduced in relation to a prominent man who had left his wife and four young sons, secured a divorce in Dakota and married the girl (who was also a member of a prominent family) who had created the difficulty. The expression of sympathy for the wife was sincere and it was acknowledged to be a large task to bring up four fatherless, or rather four deserted, boys. The hostess was emphatically of the opinion that a loss of social caste always fell to the lot of man or woman, innocent or guilty, who was divorced, especially if he or she remarried.

"Suppose," said one of the guests, "that my husband, through no fault of mine, secures a divorce, surely society should not blame me for my misfortune." "Perfectly true," replied the hostess, "and yet society would blame you; it is most unjust, but nevertheless a fact, that in this case the innocent suffer with the guilty. Your friends would patronize and pity you, your children would feel it a disgrace, your own family would rally around you, but they would think that they were very kind and expect you to appreciate their kindness and henceforth take their advice on all family matters. A man is in an equally false position, but he can run away, while under these circumstances public opinion forces the woman to stay with her own family or her children." The hostess spoke from experience, for she added, "I saw the wretchedness it caused in my husband's family, the children were torn all ways, my father-in-law became almost a recluse, my sisters-in-law had no youth, for they were oversensitive about their mother's conduct, while their brothers were overstrict as the natural reaction of the scandal and notoriety. It was very sad! Not until my marriage did the family come again into natural and pleasant social relations. The man or woman may suffer justly, but it is terrible for the children." Several of the guests cited instances of the havoc wrought in families by the separation of the parents and of the danger to any society of allowing easy divorce to become a habit; the example of several families, prominent in society and in business circles, where divorces had become only too frequent, was a menace to the high standard of morality which was a distinctive feature of family life in the New World. What responsibility has society for its attitude toward a man or woman who outrages public opinion and how to temper justice with mercy was the problem. All the speakers recognized that under some circumstances a man or woman, for their soul's sake, must ask the court to annul a marriage which is worse than slavery. The condemnation was for those who ask it to gratify selfish passion or thoughtless anger.

The differentiation of the family and affectionate relationship is a subject which does not receive much attention as a part of education, either in home or school; the average person takes it as a matter of course that children grow up with an innate sense of what is right and they are left to themselves to form their own conclusions on the matter from what they see, hear or read. As with the children so with their elders; the topic is

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rarely discussed in a concrete form and no thought (and certainly no concerted action) is given to those relationships which are productive of the greatest joy as well as the greatest sorrow and on whose nice adjustment depends the weal or woe of those they call their own. In spite of this seeming indifference the deepest and most sensitive feelings of mankind center about these relationships and the purest ideal is attained in that society where this differentiation is carried to the highest degree of delicacy. The intellectual and spiritual powers of humanity have been exerted for centuries toward elevating the conception of the office of the family and defining the rights and duties of its members, while the position of man and woman in their social and friendly relations is with each decade becoming less conventional, more natural and therefore on a firmer basis.

Civilization is far from being an entirely economic fact, but it goes almost without the saying that economic conditions affect social ideals, and this truth was never better illustrated than it is today among a certain class of Americans whose fortunes have accumulated with unexampled rapidity, who have immense wealth at their disposal, and, in some instances, no feeling of responsibility for its use. In this country there is no tenant class or family dependents whose interests must be consulted, as they are in the Old World, and to whom precedent has given a strong hold on the family purse which must be administered with economy to meet all these demands. The lack of any conception of the family as a class favors an individuality and independence of action which are unknown in older communities; thus the Americans are not bound by family conventions and traditions, and they are tempted by this very fact to allow their individual wishes to assume undue proportions and to affect their social actions—in other words, to become "a law unto themselves." In purely conventional matters the result of this independence of thought and action has had a beneficial influence on social life: boys and girls meet in school and in the universities as companions while men and women meet in society or in business on a footing of almost equal opportunity. Under these unaffected and simple conditions of life a high moral standard of family life has been established. The unmarried women of the wealthy class are sustaining this high ideal, as is shown by the rapid disappearance of girls from that special class of wealthy people called the "smart set," which can be translated into the fast set; the names of young girls are rarely mentioned when the doings of this class are chronicled, and the social prominence is given to the married woman, usually the possessors of great wealth. Often this wealth comes to the family—the wife knows not how—and the husband is too busy making it or administering it to be a guide, even did he know how, in the wise spending of it. As the social life of the family is in the hands of the women they are free to work their own will, which often, in this class, finds expression in ostentatious living.

The press in this country places an undue value on the social happenings of these special American citizens; one hesitates to use the term as applied to them, for their civic duties give them no anxiety. Who can read the telegrams from Europe of the American hostesses who are setting the pace for extravagant living and entertaining in London and Paris and not feel a pang of regret that American women should be so misrepresented? A large percentage of these international hostesses are widows who did not live with their husbands when they were alive. The husbands of others keep conveniently on this side of the Atlantic or away from their official residence. Some of these ladies have absolutely no social position in their own country, having acquired a seeming consideration from lavish expenditure in a foreign land.

As far as the welfare of the country is concerned, it is well that they are out of it. The harm comes from the fact that by keeping the doings of these so-called social leaders constantly before the public a false standard of what is supposed to be "good society" is established. Of the refined and cultured men and women—the latter as good as charming—who really compose "good society" and who travel in Europe without ostentation, nothing is heard. It is inevitable that in the thought of the intelligent and well-living European the false idea should

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gain ground that American women are dangerous examples and that the pace they set is bad form. The class of rich Americans, men or women, who reside abroad for their pleasure are a menace to any society, for no one ever takes up the earnest of life in a foreign land; the habit of flying from duties becomes fixed and this class have literally no abiding place.

The personal character of those who entertain and put in practice free and easy opinions on marriage and divorce invariably is coarsened. The psychological and moral influence of marriage, especially on women, is far reaching and only a physician can do justice to the subject, but even the laity recognize how carefully such a relation should be guarded. Wifehood and motherhood refine and ennoble when they are entered upon as the prayer-books says: "reverently and in the fear of God"—but they coarsen if a commercial, selfish or frivolous spirit characterizes the union. The brazen insolence of those whose names have become notorious through the unsavory records of the divorce courts is the natural result of these psychological conditions. The marriage of divorced people, even when they are the innocent ones, brings in its train all kinds of complications, and is rarely happy. This is a hard doctrine, but it is the truth. In a large western city there resided a widow and her daughter, both beautiful women. They had large means, good health and good spirits, were devoted to each other, a pride and joy to their friends. Into their Eden entered a serpent in the guise of a man of wealth and good family who had ill-treated his wife and privately obtained a divorce from her in an underhanded way. He married the mother but was so attentive to the daughter that she was finally obliged to leave home and reside with her grandparents. The man soon tired of his wife and went off to Europe, leaving her broken-hearted. He is now trying to obtain her consent to a divorce that he may marry a third time. Yet this man is a favorite in London among a certain set of Americans, many of whom know his story.

The children of these complicated families are certainly very unhappy and they suffer socially. The family relationships do not assume their right proportions; they are overemphasized on whichever side the child inclines and slighted on the other. They thus become a question of personal predilection instead of one of family obligations. As an instance of the unhappiness entailed on the children the following true tales are given: A man, young, wealthy, clever and strongwilled, married a girl of equal wealth and will. They were good friends at first. Their homelife was charming. Three sons and two daughters were born to them. Both father and mother were devoted to the children, but even this bond could not hold them together and they seriously disagreed. The wife, in spite of the remonstrances of her husband, left him and took the children. She finally obtained a divorce and went to Europe with the family, where she resided until her death. When the sons were of an age to go to the universities, they came to America and lived under their father's care, but neither father nor sons were happy, for they were strangers to each other.

When the eldest daughter was eighteen she came to America and visited her father. They became fast friends, she took the head of his house and as he was now more or less of an invalid she remained with him until his death. These brothers and sisters dearly loved each other and the eldest son often spoke of their grief at being separated.

Another case of a married man who "fell in love," as he called it, with another woman, secured a divorce in Dakota and married her. His two sons were left with their mother and she, as well as the father, was jealous of their affection. It was a game of cross-purposes and the eldest once exclaimed after a painful interview with his mother: "Will the day never come in which I can tell the truth? Never since I was a child have I been allowed to tell the truth to either father or mother without a scene."

There is less excuse for divorce in America than there is any other country. The rights of women are carefully conserved; men and women marry for love and not for family considerations. The families on both sides rarely interfere with the young couple, they lead their own life, a large liberty is accorded to the wife, both socially and financially. It

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would seem that in many cases forbearance, perhaps accepting the advice of a wise friend, would save a life of long regret to both parties, and certainly the responsibility of each for their influence on society should count for much. The old French proverb, *"Noblesse oblige"* is as true in these days of Democracy as it ever was. If great opportunities come to a nation, as they have come to the United States; if the world looks toward this land for a higher ideal of family and social life, it is clearly the duty of all to respond to that demand and to illustrate by the individual as well as the community life the restraining power of self-government. "The habit of right thinking is as important for a nation as for the individual, for it is the foundation of right doing," says Carl Hilty, and were a lax public opinion to gain headway it would be almost impossible ever again to think instinctively right on such matters. The responsibility is greater for the woman than for the man, for American women are the "observed of all observers" on account of the leading position which women have taken and their freedom of choice and action. They must justify the admiration which the world evinces, by adopting institutions which favor the development of courage, initiative and morality. They must run after no "will-o'-the-wisp" of "personal liberty," but must hold fast in the future as they have in the past to a high standard of family morality. Never to forget:

"That it shall be crown of our crowning
To hold our crown as a gift."

THE CHURCHES AND DIVORCE

Aside from such reforms as can be effected by the improvement of divorce legislation, the principal remedy for existing evils is to be sought in an enlightened public sentiment enforcing itself through social ostracism and ecclesiastical disapproval of loose divorce customs. The statements of several religious leaders were sought as to the attitude of their respective churches on the subject of the remarriage of divorced persons and as to their opinion of the efficacy of a refusal to remarry such persons.

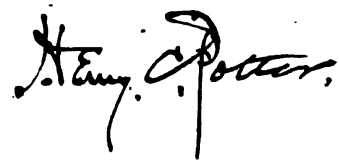
PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH

From Henry C. Potter, Bishop of New York

The attitude of the Episcopal Church toward divorce, and the remarriage of divorced persons, is determined by its canon law. That forbids a minister of the Episcopal Church to marry any person who has been divorced otherwise than as God's word doth allow, i. e., for the marital infidelity of the other party.

You ask, "Would the refusal of ministers generally to marry divorced persons tend to abolish the evils of the present situation?" Yes, undoubtedly. It is a discreditable fact that persons divorced on scriptural grounds, and refused marriage by the ministers of one communion, may be married by the ministers of some other communion. The Church should lead the way by a uniform law, not wait until the State has adopted such a law. The two spheres are distinct, and any effort to compel the one to do the work of the other will issue in the enfeeblement of the national conscience.

The confusion, in the popular mind, in regard to divorce results from a curious obtuseness on the part of the advocate of more strict legislation, whether in Church or in State. There is a profound and widespread feeling that a woman, married to a brute, or a beast, though she may not be able to prove the offense which involves his marital infidelity, should be relieved from the degradation of living with such a person, but that she should be allowed to remarry is an entirely different question. The two should be made distinct by the law, which could afford relief by granting divorce for cruelty or drunkenness or brutality, as well as for marital infidelity; but which should prohibit remarriage in all cases. Such legislation recognizes that marriage is "for better or for worse," and rebukes the frivolity which leads man or woman lightly to regard the marriage tie.



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METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH
From Bishop William F. McDowell, Chicago

The attitude of the Methodist Episcopal Church on the subject of divorce is expressed in this law, contained in the discipline of the Church:

"No divorce, except for adultery, shall be regarded by the Church as lawful; and no minister shall solemnize marriage in any case where there is a divorced wife or husband living; but this rule shall not be applied to the innocent party to a divorce for the cause of adultery, nor to divorced parties seeking to be reunited in marriage."

Replying to the second question, I have to say that, in my judgment, the universal and consistent application of a law like this would have a most wholesome effect. The evil is so great that the Church is summoned to deal with it in heroic and thorough fashion. The evil extends to all classes of society. Such a law as the one quoted ought to be applied impartially and courageously to all classes. The result would certainly be for the good of society, now seriously menaced by this unspeakable evil.

William Fraser McDowell

BAPTISTS
From George C. Lorimer, Pastor Madison Avenue Baptist Church, New York

Cherishing the teachings of Christ I have held to the belief that divorce should be granted only for unfaithfulness to the marriage vow. There is in all branches of the Churches a growing conviction that this is the correct and wholesome position to hold. Unquestionably the facility of separation afforded by the laxity of the marriage vow has contributed to the growing evil of easy, brief marriages. But in addition to this, the theater by precept and example has been and is educating the American people wrongly. Plays innumerable are founded on the looseness of the marriage tie or the sexual infelicities of the modern world. What is witnessed is faithfully reproduced off the boards. Actresses have become famous for the variety and number of their husbands. The stage neutralizes the teachings of the Church, and until she changes her course there will be no adequate reform. I know it is said that the theater only reproduces what the public demands; but this is purely an excuse. Let managers decide on a different course; give plays in which genius and art are conspicuous, and they will be sustained.

I am no enemy to the drama. In proof of which I have consented to the dramatization of "The Master of Millions." But in regard to marriage, the theater is doing more harm to-day than all other agencies combined. Let the reform begin there and the stage will prove herself the most efficient ally of the Church.

George C. Lorimer

DISCIPLES OF CHRIST
From J. H. Garrison, Editor of the Christian Evangelist, St. Louis

The general attitude of the Disciples of Christ toward divorce is that of opposition to the present easy divorce method and against the remarriage of divorced persons, except in the case of the innocent party of a couple divorced for scriptural reasons.

We believe that the refusal of ministers to marry divorced persons would have a tendency to abolish the evil, as it would bring to bear the moral influence of the Church against unscriptural divorces and marriages, though it would not, of course, completely abolish the evil.

J. H. Garrison

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH
From Bishop J. L. Spalding, Peoria

The Catholic Church holds that the validly married may not remarry so long as either of the parties is alive. Where there are sufficient reasons for it, the Church permits legal separation of the wedded couple. The refusal of ministers generally to remarry divorced persons would doubtless have a tendency to counteract the growing evil of divorce. All the organs which help to form public opinion should bring their power persistently to bear on this question, for the home makes the man.

J. L. Spalding
Bishop.

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UNITARIANS

From Samuel A. Eliot, President of the American Unitarian Association

The Unitarian fellowship is composed of independent Congregational societies. There is no official organization which can authoritatively define the position of these independent Churches on any public question. Each minister of our body acts upon his own responsibility in the matter of remarriage of divorced persons. It is my impression that our ministers are scrupulously careful and that as a rule they are reluctant to marry divorced persons. There is, however, no rule of practice in our churches and probably the problem is very infrequently presented to our ministers.

You ask me further whether, in my judgment, the refusal of ministers generally to marry divorced persons would tend to abolish the evils of the present situation. I am constrained to say that I think it would have very little effect. I personally advocate such a course, but I do so more out of solicitude for the honor of the ministry than out of a conviction that the refusal of ministers to marry divorced persons will directly promote the purity and stability of family life. I observe, as a rule, that individuals who regard the marriage bond lightly are not apt to be people of deep religious sensibility and the action or inaction of ministers is to them insignificant.

Samuel A. Eliot

RECENT ATROCITIES IN THE CONGO STATE

BY

ROBERT E. PARK

SECRETARY OF THE CONGO COMMITTEE

FOR years vague and distorted rumors of outrages perpetrated in the wild interior of Africa have drifted down the Congo to the settlements and mission posts of the lower river. Now and then these whispered horrors coming down the river thus have been transmitted in letters home, or have been brought back in the tales of the returned missionaries.

But the mission stations in the interior are very wide apart; means of communication are rare. Crimes of the kind here referred to are not usually committed within sight or sound of a mission post. So it is that the tales that have reached us from there have usually been listened to and dismissed with a shudder as one of the incidents of that terrible process of civilization whose results, as we see them under our very eyes, are often melancholy enough.

In recent years the volume of missionary tales has grown ever larger and larger; the accounts of the outrages of the native soldiery more terribly specific, until certain minds have reached the firm conviction that not only are the tales of travelers and missionaries literally true, but that they are the legitimate and inevitable fruits of the system of dealing with native peoples which is now in operation in the Congo State—a system more ruthless than any the world has known since the Spanish conquest of America.

Meanwhile, the voice of protest that reaches us from the dark continent is no longer an occasional and anonymous whisper. Men have come forward who speak openly and with knowledge. These men are no longer attacking individuals, but are now making war upon the system. This attack upon the system, rather than upon the individuals who are working in it, has already had consequences. There is no mistaking the nature of the threat which is contained in the latest bulletin of Governor-General Fuchs. Certain influences, he says, are at work in the Congo which are undermining the authority of

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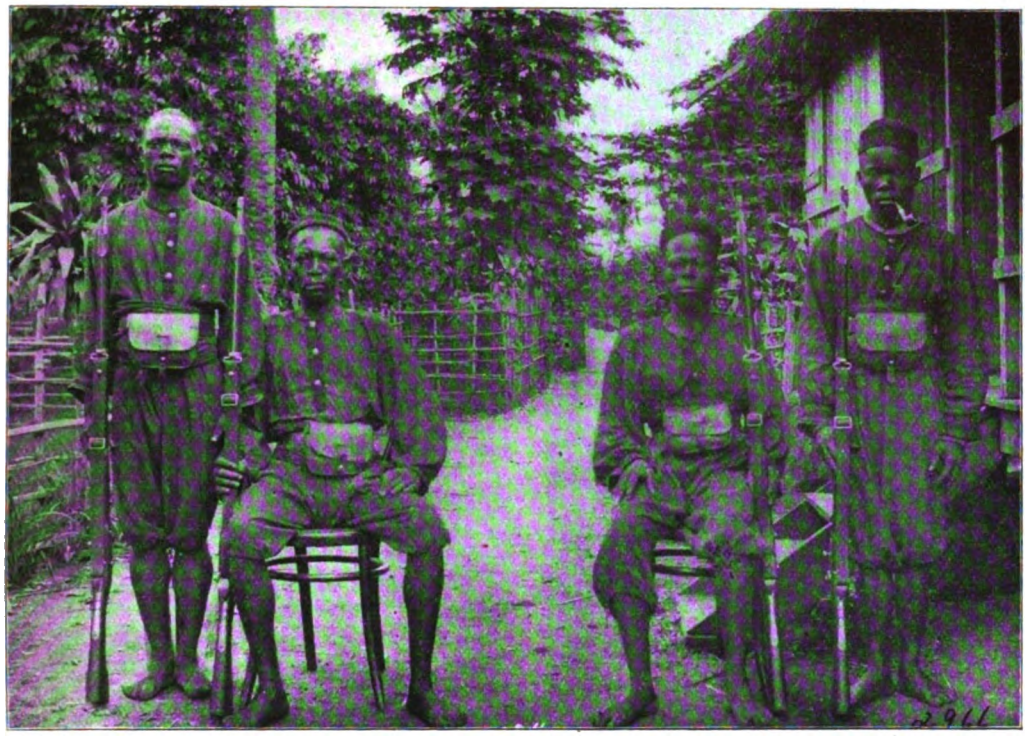

CONGO SOLDIERS

Such men as these are charged with wantonly shooting down women and children with the approval of their white officers

the state, and these influences emanate from the Protestant mission posts.

"I have already called the attention of the government to this grave situation," he says, "and the measures that it will entail if it continues. Already the local officers have found it necessary to act on their own initiative to safeguard the authority of the state, and if necessary the governor-general will consider the advisability of putting into operation the powers that the decree of September 15, 1889, puts at his disposal in the case of strangers who use their influence with the natives against the state."

THE CRIMES OF TWO MONTHS

Meanwhile the testimony in regard to the atrocities continues to accumulate. The following is an extract from a letter of John H. Harris, of the Congo Balolo Mission, at Beringa, dated May 1, 1904:

During the last two months the following outrages against others have been committed in the immediate vicinity of this station:

At the village of Bolumboloko the sentry shot Bokama.

At the village Lotoko the sentry Jangi shot the chief Iumbu and two others.

At Ekorongo the sentry Bomolo shot Isekalasumba.

At Ekorongo the sentry Ikombi shot Bosasa.

At Bolima Ilangala and others shot six men and two women.

The cases have been investigated by the judges—the first I have ever seen on the Congo—and whose district is larger than France and Germany put together. All these cases are proved beyond doubt to have been mere acts of bullying. Even the required rubber was completed! Hardly was his investigation complete before I had to call attention to some more dark deeds close at hand.

A month or six weeks ago my boy, Bomolo, was allowed to visit his friends on the opposite bank of the river. When he came back he told me of the usual stealing and blackmailing by these armed bullies, but as these things are normal I said nothing to the officials. Three days ago I sent him to buy some nets that I required, but the poor lad arrived at his friend's house only to find that his brother-in-law had been shot by Ilanga.

Another sentry, Befoja, had shot the woman Boali. Ekofa, another sentry, had shot the man Nsala. Another brute of a sentry, named Ifutu, had demanded fish of a woman named Bongwalanga. She gave him all she had got, but because it was not sufficient, he cut off her head and that of her daughter, a young girl named Lofinda.

Besides other witnesses, I have the sworn testimony of Ifeko, who picked up the headless corpses of his relatives and helped to bury them.

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A BOY MAIMED BY CONGO SOLDIERS

I need not tell you the state of the people or the sorrow of the relatives.

IN THE CAMP OF THE REFUGEES

A. E. Scrivener, who was the first white man, other than a government official, to enter the Domaine Privé and describe conditions there, has recently made another expedition to a district where a number of refugees of the Basengele and Bakutu tribes are now living. As it is dangerous for white men to know too much, and still more for natives to make statements against the government, Mr. Scrivener has not mentioned names or places in his accounts:

Here are some specimens of the stories I have heard from some of the Basengele and Bakutu:

——— went with others to the white man's station with their rubber. They were one basket short. For this basket the white man demanded that a man should be given him, and took from among them ———, made him stand at some little distance from the others and then shot him with a gun he brought from his house. Another day he was at the same place and saw ——— shot in the same way by the white man. This was because the man had killed a goat (his own), but they were told that nothing they had was their own, but belonged to the State. Another day he was at the same place and saw a party of people come in with their rubber. It was short of the proper amount. The white man received it and sent them home, and soon afterward sent six soldiers with rifles to shoot them in their own village. Two men and two women were killed.

——— said he went to the same post mentioned above with other people, taking rubber with them. One of their number was of very light complexion for a native. A soldier called the white man's attention to this, when he called out angrily that one like himself should not live on the station with him, and took his gun and shot the man as he stood a little apart from his friends.

——— was going with a soldier in the direction of the rubber forest. They met a man coming from the forest. "Why have you no rubber?" said the soldier. "It is coming behind with my boy." But the soldier shot and killed the man as he stood in the road. Another day he was with the same soldier and went with him to the gardens. They saw a man working in the cassava. "Why are you not away cutting rubber?" "Look at my cassava, it is all being eaten by the buffaloes, and I want to save a little of it to eat." Then the soldier shot him.

EXAMPLES OF CONGO JUSTICE

The crimes here charged were committed in the remotest region of the Congo State, from which no information is obtainable except from the natives themselves. A letter dated May 17, 1904, from John H. Weeks, a missionary at Monsembe Station, in Haut Congo, cites the following examples of the arbitrary methods of dealing with the natives which have come under his observation recently:

Libulula, on the south bank of the river, was formerly a large town stretching for a considerable distance along the bank. The chief, with

A BELGIAN OFFICIAL OF THE CONGO FREE STATE WITH A NATIVE CORPORAL

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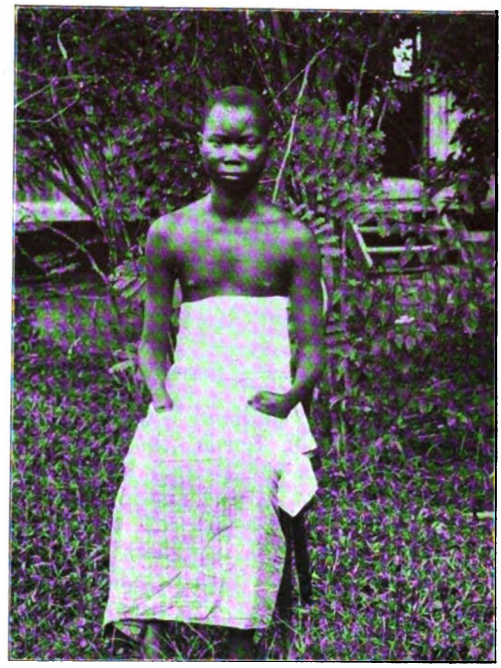
his family, lived at the upper end of it. During the last eight or nine years the town has gradually decreased, until at last at the lower end of the town was a collection of nineteen miserable huts. At the other end Ngwa, the chief, lived with his wives and family, and for hundreds of yards in between, where formerly people had lived, there was nothing but grass. Last year the commissaire of the district ordered Ngwa to remove his houses to the lower end, and live with the people. Ngwa did not wish to leave the place where his fathers had lived before him; he paid his share of the taxes and could not see any reason for the order to move lower down the river. As the commissaire insisted, Ngwa had to comply, but being undesirous to leave, he was naturally slow to obey, so he was taken a prisoner, put in chains, and made to carry bricks. His treatment was such that before his time had expired he died, on August 16, 1903.

The crime: Slowness to obey a whimsical and unreasonable order of the commissaire. Punishment: Chains and treatment resulting in death. Ngwa's share of the taxes was divided among the rest of the people, so the State lost nothing by his death, but the burden of the people was increased. When I was visiting that part a few weeks ago, I asked an intelligent native where all the people were. He said: "Some have died of sleep-sickness, some have run away, but plenty have died from worry and grief of heart, because of oppression."

Mangumbe, a headman of Monsembe, was appointed a chief by the State, and given a medal certificate to that effect. He received no remuneration, but was made responsible for the fortnightly tax due from this section of the district. Mangumbe was appointed a medal chief in the early part of 1902, and things went along fairly well until June and July of last year. Sometimes he went up with the tax, at other times he sent a responsible headman with it. During the above months, the State officials began to worry him to go up with every fortnightly tax himself, a most unreasonable demand to make of a headman who had affairs of his own to occasionally attend to; but then, of course, he should have no affairs of his own. It is two days' hard paddling to Bangala—one day to deliver the tax, and one day paddling down, leaving ten days to procure his share of the next tax and gather the rest from the people.

Last July, Mangumbe sent the tax up by a headman, and he himself went twenty to thirty-five miles down river to buy a goat ready for the next tax. Down came a messenger, calling him to Bangala (Nouvelle Anvers), but not finding him there, the messenger had to go down to Malele, where Mangumbe was bargaining for a goat. Mangumbe returned at once, collected the next tax, and went with it to Bangala. No fault was found with the tax, but because he did not take up the previous tax himself he was sentenced by the commandant in charge (the commissaire was up the Mongala River) to eight days carrying bricks in the chains. Mangumbe said, "I did not come with the tax because I went to buy a goat for the next tax." That made no difference; soldiers were called, and he was taken away to the chains.

Just before his eight days were up the commissaire (who in the meantime had received my letter of June 13) returned, and increased the sentence to twenty-two days. We can not help putting the increase of sentence down to the commissaire's irritation at receiving our communication from the same town to which Mangumbe belonged. Did he suspect that Mangumbe had given me the information about Mabata's irregular fine of 57,000 rods, and to punish him for it increased his sentence to twenty-two days?



A LAD WITH BOTH HANDS DESTROYED

Mangumbe was chained next to Ngwa, and between them they had to carry a heavy box of bricks. A soldier always accompanied them, and there are witnesses to prove that the butt end of the gun was used often on Mangumbe's back and side. Their treatment of him was such that he died within twenty-four hours of Ngwa, and his corpse was brought here on August 18. Mangumbe's share of the tax was divided among the people, so their burden became heavier, but the State lost nothing.

The crime: Not going up personally every fortnight with the tax. Punishment: Chains and ill-treatment resulting in death.

No report has as yet been received in America as to the results of recent measures that the government has taken to bring pressure upon American and English missionaries to prevent "the undermining of state authority," and it is doubtful, in view of the international origin of the Congo State and of the existing treaties, if the government will have the courage to enforce the threats that it is now making against the missionaries.

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DISPOSSESSING A GREAT CHURCH

A DECISION OF PARLIAMENT MAKES A FEW HIGHLAND MINISTERS AND CONGREGATIONS THE OWNERS OF CHURCH PROPERTY WORTH AT LEAST TWENTY MILLION DOLLARS

BY

CUTHBERT LENNOX

SCOTTISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE WORLD TO-DAY

IN August, the judicial committee of the House of Lords, the supreme judicature in the British Isles, pronounced judgment in the action against the United Free Church of Scotland raised by dissentient members of the former Free Church. The decision of the Appeal Court justifies the plaintiffs in their opposition to the union of the Free Church with the United Presbyterian Church in 1900, but it carries with it far-reaching consequences which can not fail to affect the position of all Churches within the British dominions. In effect, it has been rendered impossible for any Church to change or modify its creed or its constitution, without sanction from the Imperial Legislature; and disregard of this fettering condition involves forfeiture of all property held by the Church, the initiative being open to any member of the Church who disapproves of the change made. The immediate result of the startling pronouncement of the House of Lords is the forfeiture of colleges, churches, manses, mission buildings and invested funds to a total value variously estimated at from four to seven millions pounds sterling, and fetters have been laid upon the religious freedom of all the Churches and of the Presbyterian Churches in particular. The following account will help American citizens to understand the circumstances, and should enable them to follow with intelligent interest the developments which are sure to follow.

When the great majority of the ministers and members of the Established Church of Scotland disrupted from State connection in 1843, with a view to securing spiritual independence, there was brought into being a powerful association of worshipers which claimed to be "the Church of Scotland, Free," and afterward became known as the Free Church of Scotland. This Church parted from the State under protest, and with the express declaration and claim that the State ought to support and recognize an Established Church, without imposing obligations upon it to obey the behests of the Civil Courts. That was in 1843. But in course of the sixty years that have since elapsed, it has come to be recognized that establishment and endowment without State control is a one-sided bargain, if not a chimera or dream of impossible perfection. It has been found, too, that a strong and healthy Church may be maintained upon the free-will offerings of its people, and that the duties of self-support have only had a bracing effect upon the spiritual life of its members. The Free Church has, in point of fact, made liberal provision for the spiritual needs of almost every community in Scotland, as well as for the propagation of the Gospel in many parts of the foreign mission field.

In 1737, more than a hundred years earlier than the disruption, the straight bonds and rampant moderatism of the Established Church proved too much for Ebenezer Erskine and others, and, a few years later, for Thomas Gillespie; and from the secession of these men and those who adhered to them there sprang in turn the Secession Church and the Relief Church. After a varied history, these two Churches joined hands in 1847 and became the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland. Throughout Scotland, and more particularly in the lowlands, this Church carried on Christian work on a

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big scale, and there is scarcely a town or village, beyond the confines of the Highlands, in which it is not represented by one or more congregations, while its activities in the foreign mission field have been the most extensive of any Protestant Church. The Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church exist to-day in the United Free Church, as a result of the union of 1900.

UNION NEGOTIATIONS

So long ago as 1863 it was felt that the two Churches were distinctly overlapping one another in many communities. As they were practically identical in creed—accepting the Westminster Confession of Faith as a basis—and actually identical in acceptance of the Presbyterian form of church government, an effort was made to bring about a union of forces; but, after the lapse of ten years, protracted negotiations were broken off, in view of the bitter hostility of a strong minority in the Free Church. Dr. James Begg led that minority; and certainly, in regard to forms of worship, and in an utter disdain for the idea of establishment—still vainly clung to by the conservative men in the Free Church—the United Presbyterian Church had already adopted a more liberal attitude than that of her younger sister at the time.

THE UNION OF 1900

Time heals most breaches, and when the idea of union was again broached, about 1896, many of the most stubborn fighters had joined the "great majority," while the practice of the two Churches had become much more uniform in relation to hymns, organs and the like. With all due deliberation, a joint committee from the two Churches discussed the situation, and reports were laid before the Supreme Courts in successive years, until, in 1899, the motion of Principal Rainy, that the Free Church proceed to an incorporating union with the United Presbyterian Church, was carried by an overwhelming majority. The "Highland Host," consisting principally of ministers and elders from remote Highland parishes, who knew little or nothing of the United Presbyterians beyond the fact that they were "voluntaries," made up the minority. A "voluntary" is one who holds that the Church's operations can be and ought to be maintained from the free-will offerings of its members; but it is understood that the Gaelic synonym is equally translated "free thinker," and if this is so there is less to wonder at in the doughty battle offered by the Highland Host. The minority had, however, been reduced year by year, until now it was deemed inexpedient to postpone a combination and coördination of forces any longer. The United Presbyterian Church had declared itself unanimously for union, and, in June, 1900, approval of a draft Act of Union was carried in the Free Church Assembly by a majority of 592 to twenty-nine. This was sent down to Presbyteries for the last time, and, on October 30, 1900, the assembly homologated its previous deliverance by a vote of 643 to twenty-seven. On October 31, the representatives of the two Churches met in the Waverly Market, Edinburgh, and in an enthusiastic assembly of over two thousand members the union was consummated.

THE ANTI-UNIONISTS

But the twenty-seven anti-unionists consistently abstained from taking part in these proceedings of October 31, and claimed to be "The General Assembly of the Free Church," rid of the 643 who had gone into union with the United Presbyterians. They made an effort to get into the Free Assembly Hall, and, when they found the gates locked, took a notarial protest against their extrusion, and adjourned to another hall. Later, they raised an action in the civil courts, and this, after adverse decisions in the Outer and Inner Houses of the Supreme Courts in Scotland, has been carried by appeal to the House of Lords, and has resulted in the apparent vindication of the strict legality of their course of action.

THE POINTS AT ISSUE

In the action raised, the anti-unionists sought to have the union of 1900 declared null, in respect that it did not secure that the body of members alleged to have entered into union with the Free Church had accepted the distinctive principles and doctrines of the Church of the Disruption, and particularly the establishment principle and the view of the doctrines of predestination set forth in the Westminster Confession as adopted in 1843. They claimed further that the whole colleges, churches, manses and

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trust funds carried by the Free Church into the United Free Church belonged to them as the sole remaining representatives of those who held to the principles and doctrines of the founders of the Free Church of 1843. On the other hand, the defendants maintained that the establishment principle was not an essential doctrine of the Church, and that, in any case, the Church had an inherent right to alter her constitution and to legislate in relief of the consciences of her faithful people, without constraint from the "dead hand" of a bygone generation, a right therefore to divert the funds of the Free Church to the purposes of the United Free Church, should it be considered that there was any "diversion" at all.

THE CASE IN COURT

Eminent counsel were retained on both sides, and the case was first argued before Lord Low in the Outer House of the Scottish Court of Session in the summer of 1901. On August 9, Lord Low gave judgment in favor of the United Free Church, and dismissed the case, finding the plaintiffs liable in expenses. In his note, his Lordship said that the union was accomplished after many years of negotiation, and after the procedure by which, according to the laws of the Church, "the more general opinion of the Church" is ascertained. He was not prepared to assent to the claim of the United Free Church that the Church had inherent right to alter its constitution, but he was satisfied that the union did not affect any "fundamental" principle or doctrine of the Free Church's constitution. An appeal against this decision was taken to the Second Division of the Scottish Supreme Court, and there again, on July 4, 1902, judgment was given against the protesting minority, in even more decisive terms. Opinions were stated by Lords Kingsburgh, Young and Trayner, and these were unanimously in favor of the United Free Church. Lord Young went perhaps furthest in asserting the liberty of a Church to change its doctrine. "There is," he said, "in my opinion, no rule of law to prevent a dissenting Church from abandoning a religious doctrine or principle, however essential and fundamental, or from returning to it again, with or without qualifications or modification." "Where land is conveyed," he said further, "or money is bequeathed in *ex facie* absolute property to a Church or association of religious worshipers, I can not assent to the proposition that a court of law must or may regard the title as limited or qualified by reference, not expressed, but assumed or implied, to 'the essential doctrines and fundamental principles in the constitution of the Church.' "

IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The anti-unionists did not accept the decision of the Scottish Supreme Court, and carried their case to the last Court of Appeals—the House of Lords. There it was heard before six judges in November last; but, before the decision of the court could be issued, one of the judges—Lord Shand—died, and it was decided that the case should be reheard. In June, during nine days, counsel for parties were fully heard by a bench of seven judges, and on August 1 judgment was given. Five of the seven judges, including the Lord Chancellor, indicated their opinion that the decision of the Scottish Courts should be reversed, and the United Free Church therefore has lost the case. The Lord Chancellor refused to distinguish between a Church and any other "trust," accepted a sermon of Dr. Chalmers as a "prospectus" of the "association" founded at the disruption, and approved the contention of the appellants that the "establishment principle" and the Westminster Confession's statement of the doctrine of predestination were fundamental articles in the constitution of the Church. He would not allow that the "trustees" had any inherent power to change the doctrine of the Church. "When men subscribed money for a particular object and left it behind them for the promotion of that object, their successors had no right to change the subject endowed." Lord Macnaghten, on the other hand, in an eloquent judgment, adopted outright the position taken by the Scottish judges, and dissented from the judgment of the Lord Chancellor. "There was nothing to justify the comparison of one sermon preached by Dr. Chalmers to the prospectus of a joint stock company as the origin and foundation of the fund to which people were asked to subscribe." Nor did the Church ever make the establishment principle an article of faith.

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The Church had power to relax the stringency of the formulæ required from her ministers and office bearers so as to avoid offense to the consciences of the most conscientious, and to keep within her fold the most able and enlightened of her probationers. If these formulæ in the Established Church owed their force and efficiency to Acts of Parliament, the Free Church had rejected the ordinances of men and the authority of Parliament, and was free to regulate her own formulæ. Lords Davey, Alverstone, Robertson and James of Hereford concurred with the Lord Chancellor, Lord Lindley alone of the other judges adopting the position so well stated by Lord Macnaghten.

THE SITUATION

The decision of the House of Lords creates an extraordinary situation, and has caused a profound sensation throughout Great Britain. In effect, the whole of the invested funds available for the maintenance of colleges, of aged and infirm ministers, and partially for the support of churches and payment of ministers' stipends, as well as the colleges, mission buildings, and most of the church buildings, halls and manses, have been confiscated, and the administration of these trust properties has been awarded to a handful of ministers—not forty, all told—and a comparatively small body of communicants, mostly ignorant Highlanders. Over a thousand congregations have been unchurched, and all the missionary and other organizations have been taken from the United Free Church.

Upon the face of it, the situation is absurd, and the law has proved itself incompetent to deal with it. Were the decision to take effect at once, there would be over a thousand empty churches all over Scotland every Sunday, and as many ministers turned out of their manses.

WHAT IS TO BE DONE?

It is impossible to anticipate the course of action that may be taken by the United Free Church. A conference of ministers and elders has been summoned, and the Commission of Assembly meets immediately. Meanwhile, one or two points may be emphasized. First, the "Wee Frees" are utterly incompetent—if only by reason of their small numbers—to administer the large trusts involved, and it has occurred to some of us that it might be found within the competency of members of the Free Church of 1900 to crave in the Scottish courts an injunction or interdict upon the United Free Church trustees from parting with the funds and properties to the "Wee Frees" on the ground of their incompetency. Again, the union of 1900 has been declared null, and it is technically possible to restore the *status quo antea,* carrying on the operations of the two constituent branches of the whilom "united" Church as again separated but in active coöperation—with joint staffs, joint use of funds and joint programs. The majority of the Free Church Assembly could competently authorize such a working agreement and the United Presbyterian Synod would doubtless willingly concur. The constituent Churches need only be so resuscitated until parliamentary sanction is obtained for such a union as has now been declared illegal in the present state of the law.

Persons who take upon themselves to speak for the victors in the litigation have indicated to interviewers that their party will overtake the administration of much of the property adjudicated to them by selling or leasing or by some other form of compromise retransferring it to the United Free Church. But this is absurd. They have dispossessed the United Free Church upon the high ground of principle, and if that Church is not using the trust properties in conformity with the principles of the original Free Church, it is incompetent for the "Wee Frees" to go behind the decision which they have obtained, *vi et armis,* and hand back to the defaulting Church the very properties that have been taken from them. Already the successful litigants are beginning to realize that they have undertaken a tremendous responsibility and a trust which they are quite unable to carry out, and their dilemma is somewhat ludicrous.

There is talk, too, of an appeal to Parliament, but it is understood that there is felt to be a difficulty here in admitting any right on the part of the civil power to delimit the frontiers of religious freedom. The decision of the House of Lords, it is claimed, is *ultra vires* of a civil court of law, in having dictated to a Free Church as to which of its

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doctrines are fundamental, and in having denied the right of the supreme judicature of the Church to modify its creed or alter its constitution.

But some final adjustment must be arrived at. The Established Church of Scotland, Presbyterian also, has been girding at the narrow and obsolete dogmas of the Confession of Faith, and the effect of the judgment of the House of Lords has been to declare illegal and inoperative the Declaratory Acts by which the Free Church and the United Presbyterian Church, in 1892 and 1873, respectively, secured a certain amount of relief of conscience from the "persecuting doctrines" and ultra-Calvinistic statement of the doctrine of predestination in the Confession. By inference, too, no British Church—whether Established or non-Established, Presbyterian, Episcopalian, Congregationalist or Methodist in its form of government—may make any change in its creed or constitution so long as one dissentient member exists; and it does not require any stretch of imagination to foretell that the courts will shortly be overwhelmed with litigations in which the narrow-minded and non-liberal will seek to upset the existing order of things in the different churches up and down the land.

Two things are clear. The union of 1900 as an actual fact, legal or illegal, will be maintained at all costs, and will come out of the struggle in triumph at the end. Likewise, the law of the land must be elucidated or amended, to permit Churches to alter their creeds and revise their constitutions as the years roll on and the revelation of God leads to new positions and clearer light.

ST. LOUIS, CHICAGO, AND THE TYPHOID BACILLUS

BY

EDWIN O. JORDAN

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF BACTERIOLOGY, THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

THE issues at stake in the suit brought by the State of Missouri and the City of St. Louis to restrain the operation of the Chicago Drainage Canal have excited an unusual degree of interest at home and abroad.

The main circumstances of the case are generally familiar. The City of Chicago, after some years spent in the investigation and consideration of different projects, finally determined, about 1889, to dispose of its sewage by diverting it away from Lake Michigan into the Desplaines and Illinois valleys and thence into the Mississippi River. According to the provisions of the Act passed by the Illinois State Legislature enabling it to carry out this plan, the sewage must be diluted with twenty times its own bulk of Lake Michigan water and the rate of flow properly regulated. The main drainage channel, extending from the Chicago River at Robey Street to Lockport, a distance of about twenty-nine miles, was finally opened on January 17, 1900, after some ten years of labor and the expenditure of over $35,000,000. It is estimated that an additional sum of $25,000,000 to $30,000,000 will be needed to complete the widening of the Chicago River and the construction of various connections and feeders of the main channel.

Since the water supply of the City of St. Louis is derived from the Mississippi, about forty miles below the mouth of the Illinois, fear was expressed in some quarters lest the increase in the volume of sewage discharge by the City of Chicago would prove "a menace and a danger" to the inhabitants of the State of Missouri and especially to the citizens of St. Louis. A fact that has aroused some surprise among those not fully acquainted with the local situation is that the cities along the Illinois River have not complained of the opening of the Drainage Canal, and that

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St. Louis has been practically alone in pressing the suit. The inhabitants of the Illinois Valley have, in fact, expressed their unqualified approval of the improvement in the character of the water, brought about by the dilution already referred to. The chief reason why some places much nearer Chicago than St. Louis have expressed no apprehension of trouble appears to be that no city on the Illinois River in the entire flow of 250 miles derives its water supply from the river and that, therefore, practically the first community to feel any unwholesome effect from the sewage of Chicago, if there be any such, is the City of St. Louis.*

Prior to the opening of the Canal extensive investigations had been set on foot by both the Chicago and St. Louis authorities, with a view to determining the precise amount and character of any change that should occur when the canal was finally put in operation. The examinations of the water were continued for some months after the opening of the canal, in order to afford proper grounds for comparison. These scientific investigations by both sides have formed the basis for the defense, and, to some extent, for the attack in the suit in question. An important place has been given to these elaborate and exhaustive analytical inquiries. It was not possible to form an offhand judgment of the points in debate, since precedents in sanitary science were altogether lacking. The phenomena of the natural purification of running water had never been examined in any stream traversing such a distance and flowing under such conditions as the Illinois River. Some new points have been elicited by these investigations, and much light has been thrown on old problems. The unique features of the case on the scientific side have served to create a lively interest among all workers in the field of public hygiene. Both parties to the suit have enlisted the aid and advice of many well-known sanitarians and experts, and it has been said that it would be difficult to find any man in the United States competent to pass an opinion who has not testified on one side or the other in this case.

* The city of Alton obtains its supply from the Mississippi River about twenty miles above St. Louis, but the water is treated by a filtration process.

Stripped of all technicalities the question at issue really is whether, under the conditions prevailing in the Illinois River, the typhoid bacillus is able to pass from Chicago to St. Louis, a distance of some three hundred and fifty miles and demanding a mean average flow of eighteen days. It is generally known that typhoid fever is at present practically the only water-borne disease that causes great concern in this country. While there are other infections that are occasionally caused by polluted drinking water, there is strong reason for believing that the specific pathogenic microbes concerned in producing them closely resemble the typhoid bacillus in their life history. It follows that what applies to the water carriage of typhoid fever applies also to these less common infections. In the actual conduct of the case the battle has centered around the question as to whether typhoid bacilli introduced into the sewers of Chicago can and do travel in a living and virulent condition to the intake of the St. Louis waterworks.

There are two matters in respect to which there has been little difference of opinion among those who have studied the conditions obtaining in the Illinois River. It is generally recognized, first, that a process of chemical purification has occurred in the river water, and, second, that a visible improvement has taken place in the character of the water in the upper stretches of the river. As regards the latter point, it must be remembered that during more than forty years prior to the opening of the canal a large portion of the sewage of Chicago had been discharged in steadily increasing amounts into the Illinois River. The upper portion of the river had consequently become very foul, and the initial admixture of the sewage with pure water, in compliance with the legal requirements for the opening of the Drainage Canal, caused a notable change for the better in the condition of the Illinois River in its upper reaches. All observers are at one as to the marked betterment in the appearance of the river, and it has been also noticed that fish are able to come much farther up river than before, thus witnessing to the increased amount of oxygen in the water. An improvement in the appearance of a water affords, however, no

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safe criterion for assuming an increased wholesomeness.

The natural chemical purification of a polluted water consists essentially in the oxidation of the complex organic compounds present in fresh sewage to more stable mineralized substances. When these nitrogen-containing bodies have reached a stable condition they are no longer capable of giving rise directly to offensive decomposition products. The stench from freshly polluted waters, as is well known, is often almost intolerable, and the removal or disappearance of the substances that render this nuisance possible is an important feature of the natural purification of flowing streams. Such an oxidation process has been shown to take place in the water of the Illinois River and to be practically completed within a distance of 150 miles, or by the time Peoria is reached. The discharge of the sewage of the City of Peoria, together with the refuse from extensive stockyards and distilleries, constitutes a second and very important source of pollution at this point. This in turn undergoes oxidation during the flow to the mouth of the river.

The oxidation of the organic matter and the prevention of a nuisance are not, however, the points in contention. The heart of the whole dispute, as has been elsewhere stated, has been the question as to whether, under the conditions now prevailing, the sewage of Chicago, discharged into the Drainage Canal, can cause typhoid fever in St. Louis. There are at least two ways in which investigation may proceed. On the epidemiological side a marked increase in typhoid fever in St. Louis since 1900 as compared with the preceding decade might be taken to indicate the advent of a new exciting cause, and if the onset of such increase coincided notably with the opening of the Chicago Drainage Canal, some basis for inference might be afforded. It can be readily seen that it is not an easy task to obtain decisive evidence on this head, even if it were assumed that all the typhoid fever in St. Louis was due to the water supply. It would obviously be a delicate matter to apportion equitably the responsibility for infection of the Mississippi River water among the various urban and rural communities, near and remote, on the Mississippi, Illinois and Missouri watersheds, and to assign to each its proper share of guilt for such pathogenic bacteria as might be drawn out of the Mississippi River at the St. Louis waterworks. As a matter of fact, no clear and convincing relation has been made out between the prevalence of typhoid fever in St. Louis and the mode of discharge of the sewage of Chicago. During the four years following the opening of the canal the average typhoid fever death-rate in St. Louis has not been very different from the rate for the ten years previous to 1900. Considering the rapid growth of most of the towns on the Missouri, Mississippi and Illinois rivers it would occasion no surprise if the constant increase in the amount of pollution entering the river had resulted in a corresponding increase in water-borne diseases in St. Louis. It would be a difficult matter, however, to attribute the infection of the Mississippi River water to one rather than another of the many contributing sources. No bacteriologist can question, however, from what is known of the longevity of the typhoid bacillus in water, that infection of the St. Louis water supply is much more likely to result from the discharge of sewage and drainage within twenty-five to fifty miles above the water intake than from points several hundred miles distant.

Analytical and experimental evidence has also been introduced by both sides. A well-conceived and dramatically executed experiment was performed by the experts having charge of the investigations for the City of St. Louis in an attempt to determine whether or not sewage bacteria could traverse the distance between Chicago and St. Louis. A few miles west from Chicago, in the enemy's country at the dead of night, 107 barrels of an approximately pure culture of *bacillus prodigiosus*, a harmless species characterized by the production of red pigment and hence relatively easily recognized, were thrown into the canal. It is estimated that the number of these bacilli introduced into the canal amounted to sixteen quadrillions. Search was made for these organisms at various points along the Illinois River and it was stated on the witness stand that five organisms, apparently identical with the original culture, were found many days after in

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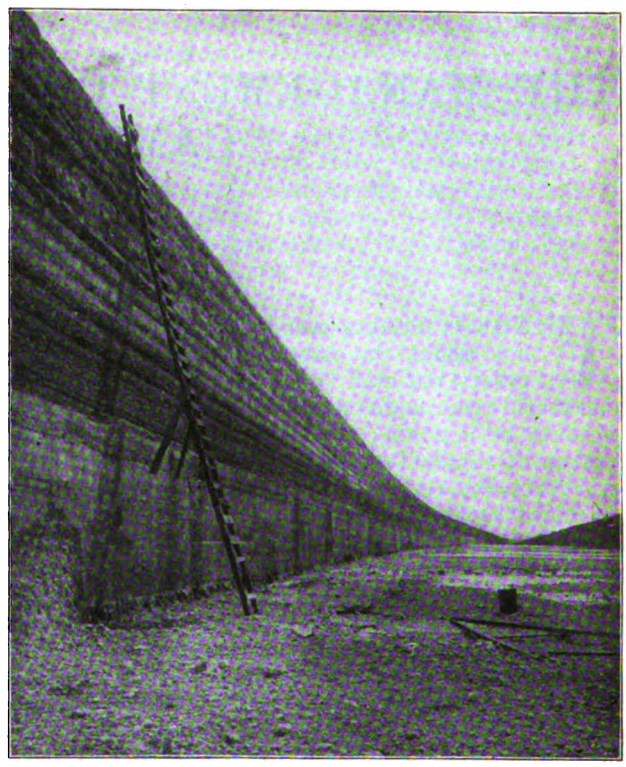
the Mississippi River near the water intake. The tests made at Joliet and Peoria on the Illinois River were negative.

Attempts have also been made to estimate in other ways the probability that the typhoid bacillus can pass from Chicago to St. Louis. Some stress, for example, has been laid upon the mortality occurring among the ordinary bacteria that swarm in sewage. A large number of sewage bacteria are present in the upper stretches of the Illinois River, rising even into hundreds of thousands per cubic centimeter. These are greatly diminished in the course of a few score miles. According to careful enumeration, the number existing in the water of the Illinois River 150 miles above its mouth is no greater than the number found in the principal tributary streams of the Illinois, or, indeed, than the number in the Mississippi River above the point at which the Illinois enters, or in the Missouri River at its mouth.



THE DRAINAGE CANAL BEFORE COMPLETION
Showing the height and width of the great cut

Special significance also has been attributed to the relative abundance of the microbe known as the colon bacillus, which is found in large numbers in fresh sewage and is regarded by bacteriologists as affording a most valuable clue to the sanitary character of a water. This organism resembles the typhoid bacillus very closely in all of its biological characteristics, but is considerably more resistant, so that any injurious influence acting upon the colon bacillus is usually assumed to impinge with greater severity upon the typhoid bacillus. The longevity of this microbe in the waters of the Illinois River has, therefore, been thought to furnish peculiarly important evidence bearing upon the survival of the typhoid bacillus under identical conditions. Extended examinations have been made to determine the presence and proportional abundance of the colon bacillus in the water of the Illinois River at various points along its course. The findings indicate that this microbe, which is present in the upper stretches of the Illinois River in immense numbers, practically disappears before the mouth of the stream is reached. It is held, consequently, that since this microörganism, so closely related to the typhoid bacillus, perishes speedily and in large numbers within a relatively short time, the less hardy typhoid bacillus is not likely to survive exposure to the same conditions.

The arguments that have been thus briefly outlined have been urged in *extenso* and with great wealth of detail during the conduct of the case, and the unusual number of technical points involved have been quickly taken up and shrewdly applied by the eminent lawyers on both sides. It is said that the record will be the largest ever presented to the United States Supreme Court, and, when printed, will make between eight and ten volumes of one thousand pages each, or about four million five hundred thousand words. It is expected that the case will be set for hearing at Washington at an early date in the autumn of this year. The decision of the court is awaited with the keenest interest by bacteriologists as well as by lawyers and state officials.

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THE MANAGEMENT OF A PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGN

BY

WALTER WELLMAN

THERE is nothing occult or mysterious about the management of a great national campaign. The successful campaign manager does not need to be a genius of the first rank, a person of wonderful powers. In fact, he will probably do better if he chances to be down somewhere near the average of competent and efficient men in temperament and method. The late Senator Hanna once said to me that in his opinion the best man to manage a presidential campaign was one who had achieved success in business life. "It is nothing but a big business operation, after all," remarked Senator Hanna, "and the man who does the best is the one who gets the most effective work out of other men and makes the fewest mistakes."

THE PERMANENT ORGANIZATION

It is a matter of common belief that the successful campaign manager must have a wonderful gift for organization, that he must create the vast machinery which he uses to carry out his purposes. But this is not the case. A man is called, for example, to the presidency of a railroad. It is presumed he knows something about railroading to start with, and that he does not have to learn the trade before he can get to work. He does not have to create an organization. He finds one ready made at his hand. All he has to do is to take hold and make the most of it. He may have some ideas of his own he wishes to execute. He may have something new to do, or old things to do in a new way. He may want to make some changes in the staff, introducing men of his choice. But, broadly speaking, the organization upon which he must depend is complete. It is capable of going on, after a fashion, with or without his personal direction.

Much the same is it with the chairman of a national committee. When he takes office he finds a tremendous machine already in existence and awaiting his word of command to start into motion. There is the national committee, corresponding to the board of directors of the railway. There are the officials of that committee, corresponding to the railway central staff. There are the chairmen of state committees throughout the country, corresponding to division superintendents. And so on down to the ward and precinct committeemen, numbering scores of thousands—the section bosses, trackmen and switchmen of the political organization. True, these components of the political machinery are not salaried; they are not in harness all the time; they are "laid off," as it were, between campaigns. But the organization is there, just the same. It is an army "in being" as Captain Mahan would say. All the new general manager has to do is to call it into action, to issue the order "forward," to see that every man springs to his post, to give them directions according to the general plan of campaign from time to time as the work progresses, and, above all, to see that the supply or commissary department does its duty.

THE QUESTION OF FUNDS

It is easy to exaggerate the importance of money in the management of a presidential campaign. There is a common impression that nothing can be done without a big sum in the till, that it is money which makes the political mare go and that she would not budge an inch without it. In point of fact money cuts small figure in the early days of a campaign. A few thousands are needed, of course, to defray the expenses of headquarters, to pay rent, salaries, printing

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bills, etc. But these require only modest sums, and actually the work of the campaign is well under way before any considerable amount of money is needed by the national manager. Later on there will be demand enough—usually too much—for cash. And in a year like this, when rich men and railways and banks and other corporations feel only the most languid interest in the outcome of the campaign, it is going to be hard work indeed for Chairmen Cortelyou and Taggart to raise funds sufficient to meet the calls made upon them. Three-fourths of the money spent by a campaign committee is put out in the last fifteen or twenty days preceding the election. Indeed, some of the shrewdest political managers I have known maintained that, barring ordinary clerical and printing expenses, a national committee wastes nine out of ten dollars of all it spends till the very day of the election itself, and that then the money should be used for but one purpose, namely, that of getting out the vote.

THE CAMPAIGN IMPORTANCE OF THE OFFICE HOLDER

In all the preliminary work it must be remembered the important thing is not what the national committee does, but what is done by the state and district and county and precinct leaders, by the party press, by the individuals who answer to the name "Republican" or "Democrat" and who have influence in their communities. In other words, it is the organization in all its ramifications throughout the length and breadth of this vast country of ours, and not the few wise men sitting at headquarters, who permit a presidential candidate to be defeated or enable him to emerge triumphant from the contest. And when we analyze this phase of the subject we find that the party with the more complete and perfect organization in the doubtful states has the better chance to win, regardless of what the national managers do or do not do. It is here that the Republicans have a tremendous advantage over their opponents in the present contest—an advantage which I point out, not because of any partiality, but wholly in a wish to be useful to the reader seeking information. No one disputes that the Republicans have the better organization in the ten or twelve northern states which are supposed to be debatable ground.

There is no other agency so successful as success in maintaining a party organization at a high state of efficiency. This success may be of three kinds—national, state or local. During the last eight years of Republican triumphs in the national field the Democratic organization has fallen to pieces in many states. The Democracy, as we all know, has been a house divided against itself. It has lost heart, and its organization has lost efficiency. Now that the party is once more united, and again has a reasonable hope of success, it will naturally make efforts to patch up its machinery and get once more in good fighting trim. This takes time, however; and for this reason Chairman Taggart and his confreres of the Democratic management have a much more difficult task on their hands than have Chairman Cortelyou and his associates. All the more credit to the former if they can win the victory. In all but three or four of the so-called doubtful states the Republicans have the governors, the legislatures, the state governments. Inquiry develops, too, that in a great majority of the counties the Republicans hold the local offices; and as long as human nature remains what it is this possession of the local flesh-pots will be a powerful factor in the maintenance of an efficient party organization.

For example, in twenty or thirty of the up-state counties in New York, where the Republican majorities are heavy and continuous, and where they sweep all the offices, state, county, congressional and other, the Democratic organization has literally gone to pieces. There is nothing left of it but a name. Since federal patronage was withdrawn eight years ago, it has had nothing to live upon. For efficient, hand-to-hand fighting it is about as valuable as the Republican organization in Texas or Georgia. Judge Parker himself has insisted, I am told, that herculean efforts shall be made to build up these shattered county organizations of his party, and the outcome will be watched with great interest by both sides. In Indiana conditions are more evenly matched, and there Manager Taggart has an opportunity to show the country the importance of having a thorough party organization

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which never tires, is never discouraged, never sleeps.

Perhaps the big politicians—the men whose trade it is to pose as leaders and to keep press and public watching their movements and listening to their oracular utterances, as if the fate of parties and the future of the country depended upon them—will not be much pleased to have me say so, but the fact is, national campaigns come very near running themselves. There is a good deal of nonsense about the influence this or that manager can exert, broadly speaking. About ninety-nine out of a hundred voters are not in doubt. They know how they are going to vote, and so does every one else, and that is for their party. They do not change. As to the small percentage that are really in doubt, independent or wavering, the national managers can "get at" or "handle" but few. Probably it is true the independent vote is gradually increasing in our country; but its greatest growth is among citizens who are not amenable to the wiles and arguments of the campaign managers. As a rule I believe the result of presidential elections would be the same if one of the national committees was to shut up shop and leave the field wholly to its rival. There are exceptions, of course. One exception was in 1892, when the late William C. Whitney undoubtedly secured the second election of Mr. Cleveland by skilful management in New York City. Another exception was in 1896, when more than one western state, thitherto considered safely Republican, would have run wild for Bryan and free silver but for the heroic campaign of education conducted by the late Senator Hanna.

Generally speaking, public sentiment is not created by the campaign managers. Take this year, for example. No one doubts that the verdict of the people as to the Roosevelt administration and as to the President himself was made up months ago, and that all the efforts of the rival campaign managers to affect or change it will be almost like whistling down the wind. The people are for Roosevelt or they are against him. The trouble is, neither the campaign managers nor any one else knows whether they are or are not, and as long as the doubt remains the beating of the big drum and blowing of the great horn will have to continue. But if Mr. Cortelyou positively knew the verdict is in the President's favor he could afford to stop work and go to Europe on a vacation, in full confidence that when he returned in November the votes would count up all right. Public opinion is a thing that forms itself in a queer way. Its processes are mysterious. The press has far more to do with it than the politicians, but even the press is not all-powerful. For some reason, perhaps never adequately explained, the public fails to like a presidential candidate or the attitude of his party behind him. One party is apathetic and fails to get out a full vote. The other succeeds beyond the fondest anticipations of its leaders. There has been a silent change among the ten out of a thousand who hold the balance of power, and the manager of the winning campaign is crowned with a laurel wreath, though he may have had as much to do with it as he has with the rise of the barometer.

FORMING PUBLIC OPINION

Campaign managers can not change the currents of opinion. They can not make Presidents. The most they can do is to shade things. That is to say, they may be able to work up a show of interest or even a fair counterfeit presentment of enthusiasm where none existed before. They may save a few votes or gain a few by clever handling of certain localities, or naturalized citizens, or corporations, or labor organizations. Mr. Cortelyou may exert wholesome influence in adjusting the Wisconsin quarrel in his own party, and the Messrs. Taggart, Belmont and Sheehan may be able to secure the hearty cooperation of Tammany Hall. But no campaign manager is enough of a magician to make a silk purse out of a pig's ear; and the event and the personalities presented to the voters for review long ago produced a psychological effect upon the country which is away beyond the reach of the makers of speeches, writers of editorials, compilers of "literature" and other agencies and instrumentalities of campaign management.

MEETING A CRISIS

In large part, then, a campaign runs itself, just as a big railway continues to

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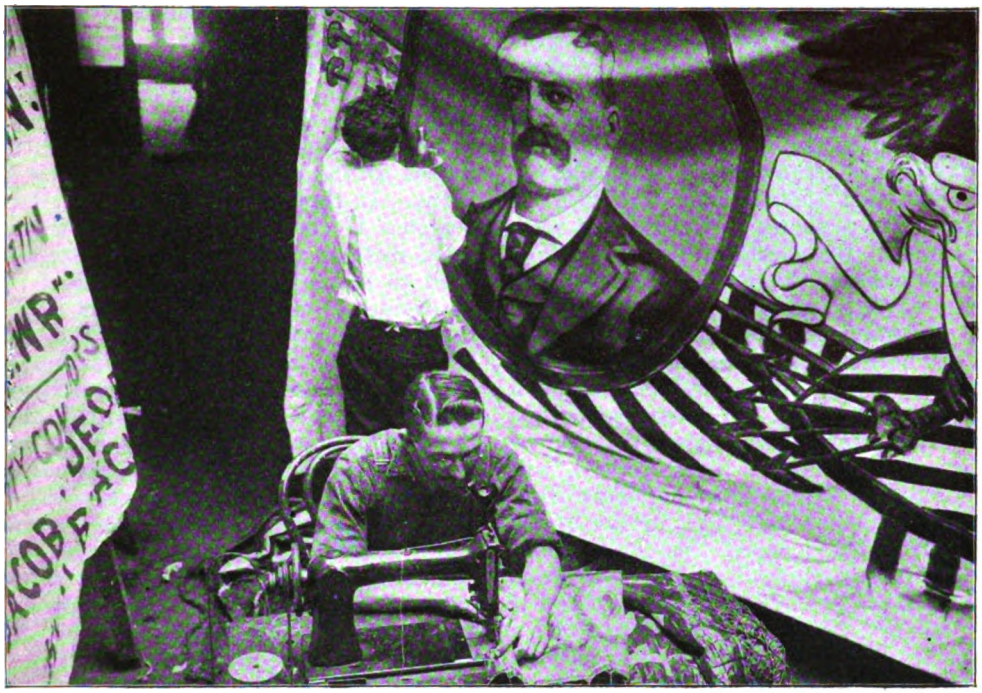

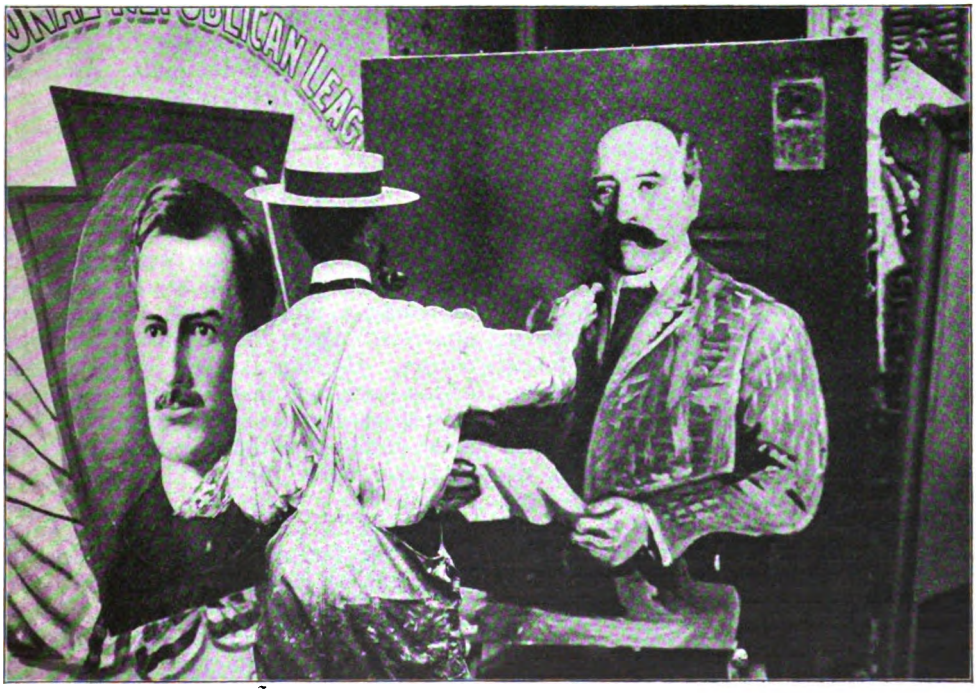

MAKING THE CAMPAIGN BANNERS

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operate whether it is in the hands of a receiver or a good railway man. But let us suppose there is serious trouble on the line. Suppose one or both of the campaign managers discover that in certain states the psychological conditions making pro and con in the minds of the people are pretty evenly balanced. For example, the "ten-day poll" in Indiana or New York or other states shows that in the last week of October the electoral votes of those commonwealths are hanging in the balance. Five thousand ballots in New York, two thousand in Indiana, one thousand in Connecticut, five hundred in Rhode Island, measure the difference between victory and defeat. If it comes to this, then the campaign manager may be of supreme importance. Then, indeed, will he have opportunity to demonstrate that he is a great man, that he is master of the situation. The successful campaign manager, the true political general, is the one who does not guess, but who knows, and if he finds his adversary is due to win by a scratch, who has the genius, the energy, the resourcefulness, to jump in at the last moment and with a few well-directed blows snatch victory from the very jaws of defeat.

Had the Republican campaign managers of 1884 known that only eleven hundred votes stood between Mr. Blaine and the White House, and most of those fraudulent votes in the rotten borough of Coney Island, who doubts that they could have taken measures to save the day? Or, had the Democrats had an efficient information bureau attached to their army of 1896, could enough votes have been filched from them after election to change the result? A man of ordinary business ability can arrange a national campaign in its normal stage—send out speakers, mail tracts, "work" the newspapers, and protect the cash-box against the raids of fakirs and strikers. The Napoleon of managers—or, shall we soon have to say, the Oyama?—is he who takes a census of his vital and doubtful states a fortnight before the fateful day, learns beyond the possibility of doubt where he stands, and finishes the battle accordingly.

It is at such a crisis as this that generalship counts, and that money plays an important part. So does organization. Imagine that a week before the election Chairman Cortelyou's poll tells him he is two thousand votes short in Indiana. To know that he has a chance to win he must be able to place confidence in his organization, in the thousands of precinct committeemen who have taken the political census of the state and sent in their returns. If they are too optimistic, he is beaten. If they have leaned over backward in their wish to be safe, there is no need to make a last supreme effort. If he decides to make such an effort, and to throw a big pot of money into the state, he must rely upon his organization for its effective use. The county chairman who undertakes to disburse two or three thousand dollars at the last moment must in turn depend upon his local committeemen for honest and productive work.

More than once in the past has a shrewd and resourceful campaign manager been able to save a state at the eleventh hour by the use of money. It can be done today, even with the Australian ballot. The use of money does not necessarily or often mean bribery of voters. In our modern system it does mean hiring men to work for the ticket, trusting to luck they will themselves vote right. It means hiring teams and wagons by the thousand to get voters to the polls. And sometimes it means hiring other men not to go to the polls.

THE CHAIRMAN OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE

A successful campaign manager must be not only the good business man Senator Hanna said he should be; he must be a diplomat, a financier and a composer of quarrels. Above all he must know human nature. He must know how to be chary of his promises, that in the event of success he shall not embarrass his chief and make infinite trouble for himself by putting out more "paper" than he can redeem.

"There is one reason why I wanted Cortelyou for my campaign manager," President Roosevelt once said to a friend. "With him in control I knew that if I were reëlected I should not have my days and nights made miserable by being confronted with a lot of obligations I had never before heard of."

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MEN OF THE MONTH

Iwao Oyama*

The Japanese General of Generals

MARQUIS OYAMA is a giant among the Japanese. Six feet tall and weighing nearly three hundred pounds, he is the national patron of wrestling and of swordsmanship, and the idol of the army. Notwithstanding the recent honors won by the foreign-trained generals, Kuroki, Oku, Nozu and Nogi, this representative of the Samurai class is the idol of the army, which regards him as the general of generals and the embodiment of the spirit of old Japan. Marquis Oyama is the youngest of the empire builders of Japan, among whom Marquis Yamagata and Marquis Ito are best known. He is now about sixty-two years of age, and his career covers about two generations. He first won distinction during the bloody Civil War, which broke the power of the Shoguns and restored the Mikado to power. Twenty-seven years ago the most prominent leader of the Satsuma clan was Oyama's cousin, Saigo. He was one of the first modern Japanese expansionists, and was eager to conquer Korea. Okubo, then premier, who was perhaps the greatest statesman of the Japanese restoration, opposed the plan and the Emperor agreed with him. Saigo promptly organized thousands of young men who flocked to him into an army. Almost before he knew it he was at the head of a successful rebellion. Government troops were besieged for three months in the strong fortress of Kumamoto, and apparently the end of the dynasty seemed imminent. Then it was that Oyama, who had remained loyal to the Mikado, proposed a last desperate sortie. His plan was adopted. Oyama himself led the charge and with a sword in each hand performed prodigies of valor. The rebels were surrounded and destroyed, Saigo committing hara-kiri. The new empire was saved. And Oyama was its savior.

Throughout his long career, Oyama—who, by the way, is married to a graduate of Vassar College—has been noted for his purity of character as much as for his strength of arm, and stands deservedly as one of the great personalities of the day.

*Portrait on frontispiece page.

Karl Mantzius, Actor and Scholar

DR. KARL MANTZIUS, of the State Theater at Copenhagen, is one of the few distinguished actors who have ventured into the paths not merely of authorship but of original research. His father was a leading actor, and Dr.

KARL MANTZIUS

Mantzius, who finds it difficult to speak about his own work, has more to say about his father's powers, especially about his Falstaff. Karl Mantzius set out with the intention of being a teacher, but the more varied life of the journalist claimed him. When in Paris, as the correspondent for a Danish paper, he was drawn to study acting at the Conservatoire in connection with the Comédie Française. A unique

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WILMON W. BLACKMAR
Appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army of the Republic

experience started him as an actor in his native country, for he received an unsought invitation to join the State Theater at Copenhagen. After a few years, he left and became, at the early age of twenty-nine, manager of another theater, only to return later, however, to the premier theater in Denmark, one, moreover, that is second in tradition and achievement to none in Europe except the Comédie Française. Mantzius gradually veered from the comic roles he had played via Helmer in "A Doll House," and Brack in "Hedda Gabler," to the characters in which he is preëminent, Richard III., Shylock and King Lear.

His literary work, "The History of the Theatrical Art," of which three volumes are completed, is full of interesting detail and facts never before brought together. The book is moreover so pleasantly written and enlivened by characteristic touches of humor that one hardly realizes the learning it represents. The wave of realism that has affected all literature has also affected the treatment of the history of theatrical art by its students. Ignorance of the actual possibilities and limitations of the stage has caused the most learned writers on the subject to make absurd mistakes. For the first time in these volumes the subject of theatrical art has been dealt with by one who is a student and in his daily life an actor and teacher, stage manager and translator and adapter of plays. Dr. Mantzius was born in 1860, and he has many years before him in which to complete his work.

Earl Grey

New Governor-General of Canada

HON. SIR ALBERT HENRY GREY, the fourth Earl of Northumberland, whose appointment as the successor of the Earl of Minto as governor-general of Canada was recently approved by King Edward, is distinguished as an industrial promoter, a financier and a philanthropist. In the last capacity he was the projector of the Public House Trust Company, an institution intended to change saloons into decent resorts by making the sale of strong drink a profitless secondary feature. As a promoter, Earl Grey was associated with the late Cecil Rhodes in the development of South Africa, and is executor of his friend's will. At one time he was interested in the Hudson River Tunnel, as well as in a proposed tunnel to extend from the city hall, Manhattan, to the Flatbush Avenue Station, Brooklyn. One of the richest members of the British peerage, he owns about seventeen thousand six hundred acres of landed estates.

Earl Grey was born November 28, 1851, the son of General Hon. Charles Grey, and Caroline, daughter of Sir Harvie, Baronet. The first Earl Grey was a distinguished commanding officer in the first American War. Albert Henry George, the fourth Earl Grey, was educated at Harrow and at Trinity College, Cambridge. From Trinity he graduated with the honors of Senior in Law and History Tripos in 1873. In 1877 he married Alice, third daughter of Robert Stayner Halford, member of Parliament for Westonbirt, Gloucestershire. He was elected to Parliament for Northumberland in 1878, but was unseated on petition. However, he represented South Northumberland in Parliament, in 1880-1885, and the Tynesdale Division in 1885-86. While traveling in South

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Africa in 1894 he succeeded his uncle, the third Earl of Northumberland. After the Jameson Raid, 1896, he succeeded Cecil Rhodes as representative of the British South Africa Company, of which he has been a director since 1898. He quelled the Matabele rebellion in 1896-97, while administrator of Rhodesia. He also fought with distinction in the Boer War. Since 1899 he has been Lord-Lieutenant of Northumberland. His sister is the wife of Lord Minto.

Edmund Janes James

New Head of Illinois University

PRESIDENT EDMUND JANES JAMES, of Northwestern University, has been chosen to succeed Andrew S. Draper as president of the University of Illinois. Any institution is to be congratulated that secures the services of this noted educator and political economist, and the influence of his strong, kindly personality. Dr. James comes of distinguished New England colonial stock. He was born, May 21, 1855, at Jacksonville, Illinois, the son of the Rev. Colin D. James, one of the pioneer Methodist preachers of the state, and Amanda (Casad) James. He graduated from the Illinois State Normal School, Northwestern University and Harvard College. Then he pursued courses in economics and social science at the universities of Halle, Leipzig and Berlin, taking the degree of Ph.D. in 1877 at Halle. Two years later he married Miss Anna Margaret Lange, daughter of Rev. William Roderick Lange, of Halle, and granddaughter on the mother's side of Professor Dr. W. G. Gerlach, of the University of Halle. In 1877-79 Dr. James was principal of the Evanston, Illinois, high school, and for the next three years of the Model High School. Normal, Illinois. He was thereafter professor of public finance and administration, University of Pennsylvania, 1883-96; professor of public administration and director of the University Extension Division, University of Chicago, 1897-1901; and has been president of Northwestern since 1902. For eleven years he was president of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, which he founded. He was founder and for six years the president of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, Philadelphia. Also he is past vice-president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science; vice-president of the National Municipal League; vice-president of the Board of Trustees, Illinois State Historical Library; fellow of the Royal Statist Society, Dublin; and member of the Société d'Economie Politique, Paris. Dr. James had played an important part in the movement for the general introduction of the kindergarten into the public school system, in the introduction of the elective system into colleges, in the development of higher commercial education and in the agitation for the professional training of teachers at the universities.

Dr. James belongs to many important clubs and is fond of horseback riding, wheeling, golf and mountain climbing.

M. Waldeck-Rousseau

Ex-Premier of France

EX-PREMIER WALDECK-ROUSSEAU had been so long in retirement from public life that his recent death has not affected French politics. His work as a statesman had entirely to do with tiding over a period of transition marked by a conflict between uncontrollable political and social forces. He entered Parliament at the age of thirty-three and soon became a power both in Parliament and in the conservative Republican party. Under President Grévy he was appointed minister of the interior in the *"grand ministère"* of which Gambetta was the premier. This office he lost when Gambetta made a fiasco of trying to stem the rising tide of Radicalism and the *"grand ministère"* was overthrown. Again, in 1883-1885, Waldeck-Rousseau became minister of the interior under the premiership of Jules Ferry. Waldeck-Rousseau upheld Ferry's dispersion of the teaching religious communities, though the young minister had been educated in a religious college. The Ferry ministry was eventually overthrown as the Gambetta ministry had been.

Since his retirement from office, Waldeck-Rousseau had seemed to disapprove of the extremes to which the anti-ecclesiastical policy has been carried by his successor, M. Combes, in the campaign against church schools.

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John Edward Redmond

JOHN E. REDMOND, leader of the Irish party in the British Parliament, arrived in New York City, August 24, to take part in the second national convention of the United Irish League of America. Once before, in 1901, he came to America for the purpose of obtaining the moral and financial support of this same organization. He now declares that by contributing a large campaign fund the Irish-Americans can bring about a triumph for the Irish party at the next general election. This prominent Irish Nationalist has sat in Parliament continuously since 1881, and has been a leading Parnellite ever since the Parnell split. He was born in 1851, the son of the late W. A. Redmond, a member of Parliament from Ballytrent, Ireland. After graduating from Clongowes Wood College, Kildare, and from Trinity College, Dublin, he was admitted to the bar at Gray's Inn in 1886, and at the King's Inns in 1887. For some time he was clerk in the vote office in the House of Commons, and was elected to Parliament first, in 1881, from New Ross. In 1885 he was returned from North Wexford, and from Waterford in 1891. He still represents the last constituency.

Dr. William Osler

New Regius Professor of Medicine at Oxford

"THE man of science in the presence of so many mysteries which have been unveiled, in the presence of so many yet unsolved, can not be dogmatic and deny the possibility of a future state. . . . He can not but feel that the emotional side to which faith leans makes for all that is bright and joyous in life. . . . On the question before us, wide and far your hearts will range from those early days when matin and evensong, evensong and matin, sang the larger hope of humanity into your own souls. . . . Some of you will wander through all phases, to come at last to the opinion of Cicero, who had rather be mistaken with Plato than be in the right with those who deny altogether life after death; and this is my own *confessio fidei.*"

In these words does Dr. William Osler give the key to his personal religious belief in his latest book, "Science and Immortality." Just as Dr. Osler has added to his fame by the publication of this scientific work of great human interest, it is announced from London that he has been appointed to succeed Sir John Burdon-Sanderson as Regius professor of medicine at Oxford University. The appointment is too well merited to be surprising. Even in Canada his name was a household word before he became connected with any American university. As a physician and surgeon he has performed operations declared to be almost marvelous. Yet throughout his professional life he has been a teacher of medicine. His immense knowledge of medicine, his broad culture and natural power of expression make him an ideal instructor and lecturer. In writing and speaking he uses the simplest terms that his subject will permit. He commands wide popular interest through his gift as an orator.

William Osler was born at Tecumseh, Ontario, July 12, 1849. He was educated at Trinity College School, at Trinity College, Toronto, at Toronto University and at M'Gill University, Montreal; also at University College, London, and at Berlin and Vienna. Subsequently he received the degree of LL.D. from the universities of Aberdeen, Edinburgh, M'Gill, Yale and Harvard. In 1874, two years after graduating in medicine from M'Gill University, he became professor of the Institute of Medicine at that institution. After holding this chair ten years he became, for five years, professor of clinical medicine at the University of Pennsylvania. Since 1889 Dr. Osler has been professor of medicine at the Johns Hopkins University, and physician to the Johns Hopkins Hospital. He was appointed Gulstonian lecturer at the Royal College of Physicians, London, in 1885, and was elected F. R. S., London, in 1898.

Besides his new work, the "Science and Immortality," quoted from above, Dr. Osler has published many technical works of great value. Of these the most important is "The Principles and Practice of Medicine," which reached its fifth edition in 1902. His other publications are: "Cerebral Palsies of Children," 1889; "Chorea and Choreiform Affections," 1894; "Lectures on Abdominal Tumors," 1895; "On Angina Pectoris and Allied States," 1897; "Monograph on Cancer of the Stomach," 1900.

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THE WORLD'S THOUGHT

CRITICAL ESTIMATES OF ANSWERS TO LIVE QUESTIONS

Naturalized Provincialism

MR. HUGO MÜNSTERBERG has just written a volume upon Americans for the illumination of German readers. In it he states that the United States has three capitals: Washington for its politics, New York for its commerce, and Boston for its intellect. (Mr. Münsterberg is a professor in Harvard University.) We must confess to admiration for such provincialism, but we can not quite share in it. Intellect as represented in other fields than politics and commerce is not being controlled to any very large degree by forces centering in the vicinity of the tombs of the progenitors of American literature. There are half a dozen universities which are exercising quite as strong an influence as is Harvard, and New York probably publishes more books and magazines in a month than Boston does in a decade. Even Philistine Chicago probably has more students than Greater Boston. The fact is there is no "capital for the intellect" of the United States. It is a confession of provincialism to discover one.

Can an American Be a Genius?

MR. ARCHIBALD R. COLQUHOUN, who supplies the volume with a three-quarter length picture of himself standing with his hands in his pockets, declares in his "Greater America" that "modern America has become the home of mediocrity—she produces talent but not genius—nor is there to be found to-day in any part of the United States that peculiar literary or esthetic atmosphere which is so often the cradle for genius. It was and is not." Of course, Mr. Colquhoun is referring to writers and painters and musicians. Probably he would admit that America has produced an industrial genius or two. But we are inclined to think that he has rather done us an injustice. If we are short of geniuses, it is not an exclusively American trait. It always take some perspective to recognize a genius. Speaking generally, except in cases of persons who have versatile press agents, a genius is generally dead. Perhaps that accounts for the fact that they were not seen by Mr. Colquhoun in America. Americans are pretty much alive.

The Theater Through the Eyes of Innocent Fifty-five

IN the July number of the (British) *Review of Reviews,* Mr. Stead writes at length upon the impressions made by his first visit to the theater at the age of fifty-five. Mr. Stead has the gift of emphatic statement, and as he was struck by the unpleasant, not to say immoral, tendencies of the stage at this first visit, it is not surprising that his article has stirred up considerable comment in the theatrical world. To judge from the selections published in the August number of his magazine, Mr. Stead has received rather more attention from the stage than from the pulpit. On the whole, the matter seems to be turning pretty largely around the character of actresses. Mr. Bernard Shaw throws a *tu quoque* at stout Englishwomen who go to church, and Sydney Grundy defies Mr. Stead to state just what he means when he suspects that the theater "does not make for righteousness." All of which goes to show that it is never safe to make sweeping statements —a temptation which Mr. Stead has not always avoided. The stage is with us and with us to stay. So are the trusts. There are good plays and good trusts; there are good actors and actresses, and good directors of corporations. So also there are bad. The part of wisdom is to treat the theater as we are planning to treat the trusts—discriminate between the two

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kinds, and legislate the bad ones out of existence.

It is an easy prescription to make; it is rather harder to take. For the public will never refuse to see upon the stage an evil it would commit if it dared. Like priest like people; like stage like public.

Another Englishman Sees America Ruined

PROFESSOR GOLDWIN SMITH, in a recent number of the *Monthly Review,* takes an exceedingly pessimistic view of the future of the United States. We are certainly going to ruin, according to the octogenarian philosopher of Canada. Our parties have no fixed creed or abiding character. There was pure patriotism in the time of Lincoln, but there is none now. The boss is the recognized authority; each party has a standing army of wire pullers, and Admiral Dewey was near being nominated for President. Surely this is a most lugubrious picture which the philosopher draws for us! We trust that he is not a good prophet; in fact, we are sure he is not. There are plenty of dangers threatening the American people, but that is no new condition. The only thing that is free from danger is death. Life is always full of difficulties. The manner in which the moral sense of communities is expressing itself in different parties of the country certainly argues that much of Professor Smith's jeremiad is rhetoric and nothing but rhetoric. Has Professor Smith forgotten how his fellow countryman, Freeman, published a volume on constitutional history "till the downfall of the United States"? That was in 1861. "Knockers" are seldom good prophets where America is concerned!

THE TOURIST'S WELCOME AT ST. LOUIS
From *Lustige Blätter*

German Comment on the Exposition

THE number of foreign visitors at St. Louis is much smaller than at Chicago eleven years ago, and so far as the European periodicals reflect the opinion of tourists, their impressions are not over flattering. *Lustige Blätter* gives up almost an entire number to making fun of the exposition. High prices and mud are the chief things complained of. A writer in *Der Monat* gives much space to the state of the exposition roads after a rain, and affirms that Americans do not know how to build roads. He also finds the Pike a dismal caricature of amusement. In justice to the foreign visitors it should be said that with their criticisms they mingle generous praise of the architecture and exhibits.

Can Good Literature be Written by Amateurs?

A RATHER bumptious critic, reviewing William Morton Payne's paper in the July number of THE WORLD TODAY, speaks slightingly of literary amateurs. We hold no brief from Mr. Payne and are free to confess that if he omits some persons in his article whom others would have included, it is a matter of taste. The question we would raise is whether it is against a man to write books and at the same time not depend upon his writings for his living. It would be, of course, delightful to have books that sold so generously as to enable one to live upon their profits, but most of us find the public not very keen to make us literary millionaires. Despite the vigorous opinion of Mr. Payne's critic, we are inclined to believe that even a man who writes books is justified in earning money

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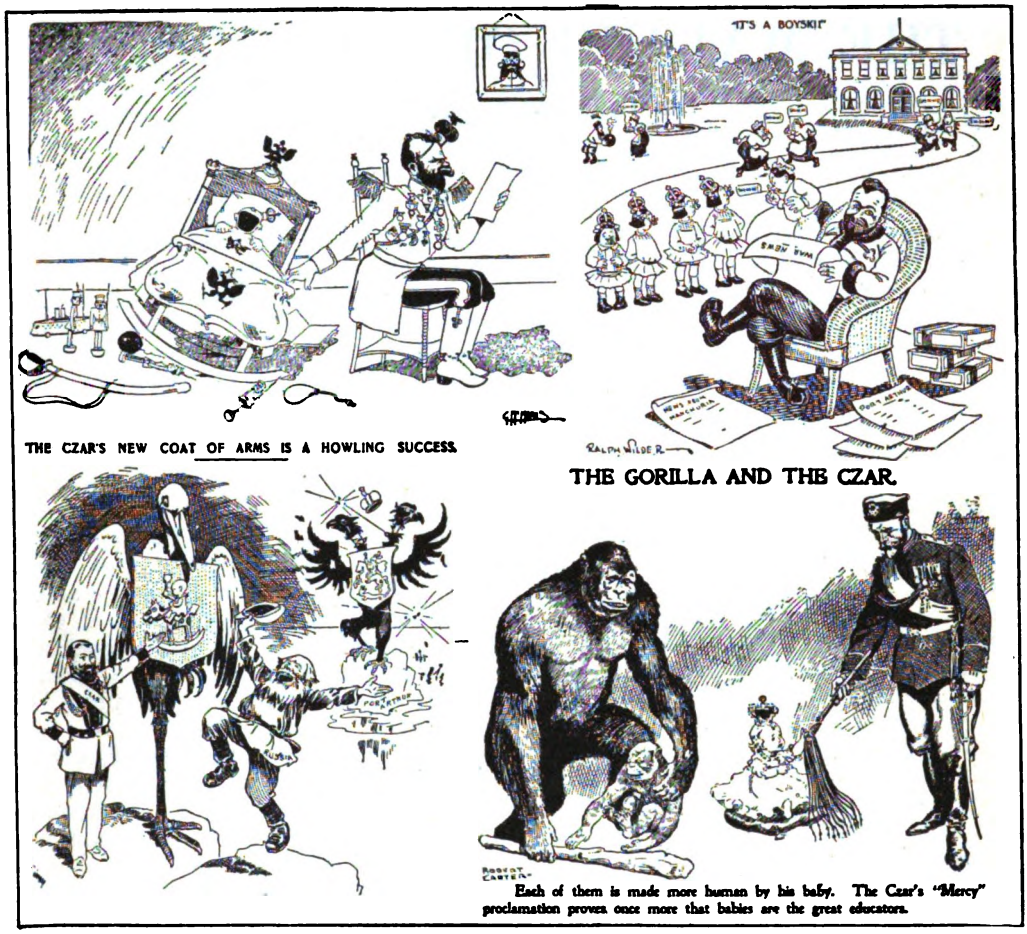

THE CARTOONISTS AND THE CZAREVITCH

New York *World*
Chicago *Daily News*

Chicago *Record-Herald*
Chicago *American*

in some other way. And come to think of it, the list of really important writers who have not lived off of their books, but who have had some other calling than that of bookwriting is rather respectable; perhaps quite as much so as that of men who have made their living wholly off their royalties.

In the Strength of One's Youth

MR. GEORGE HORACE LORIMER, who is uttering an astonishing amount of good sense in his letters from "Old Gorgon Graham" in *The Saturday Evening Post,* makes his hero say: "The only favor that a good man needs is an opportunity to do the best work that is in him; and that's the only present you can make him once a week that will be a help instead of a hindrance to him." Could wisdom be put more sententiously? But, after all, like most sententious things, is it not the philosophy of the strong man? What are we to do with the man who has no "best work" in him? The thing that most of us dread more than death is the day when somebody will say: "Ease up on Mr. So and So; he's getting a trifle old." What sort of favor are those of us who are now full of vigor going to ask of men when we find there isn't an extra ounce that we can put into our stroke when the cockswain calls for a spurt? What is the favor that we shall ask from people then? A respectable funeral, or a pension, or a room in an old gentlemen's home?

Let's not think about it!

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING
FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

Arts and Crafts at St. Louis

IN the Palace of Fine Arts at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition one very definite reform has been inaugurated in the creditable standing accorded that class of art products known as "Objects of Art Workmanship." Much to its disadvantage this group has never before been entered at any important display in this country without the distinction of "Fine" and "Applied Arts" having been sharply drawn. At Chicago in 1893, however, a step in the proper direction was instituted when the admission of certain examples of French and American pottery, as well as of objects of Japanese art-craft, was a practical acknowledgment of the nobility of a hitherto secondary movement. An earnest desire to rectify unfairness has resulted at St. Louis in the broadening of the term "Fine Art" until it includes whatever has been produced through conviction and knowledge by the artist himself. It is also made to comprise designs and models of objects which, in consequence of their having been developed either by mechanical means or by other than the artist's hands, are themselves shown in the Palace of Manufactures.

The English Art-Craft showing is particularly creditable. As the exponent of a principle, it deserves especial mention, owing to the faithful and tireless work of its early advocates. Walter Crane, the man who, perhaps, to-day represents the idea in its strictest sense and who is president of the Arts and Crafts Exhibition Society of London, designed and, with the assistance of Mr. Cleobury, painted the frieze for all the rooms in the British section. Mr. Crane also is honored by considerable wall space devoted to his work. Exceptional versatility is noticeable in the display, which includes designs for stained glass, book decorations, mural tiles, a linen hanging and a municipal mace.

It is to be regretted, as Germany holds so prominent a position in the movement, that she is not represented in the Art Palace by some of her striking creations. However, some very strong architectural designs are shown and that which virtually amounts to her arts and crafts exhibit has been arranged in a series of interiors designed by the leading architects of the country and forming a suite to represent an artist's summer home. As an exhibit, this showing forms one of the most attractive features of the Varied Industries building. Here, where a wing of the model dwelling is permitted to extend out into the large central enclosure, the delightful effect of open courts, in which refreshing fountains play, has been easily accommodated to the surrounding building. Apropos of this display, it will be interesting to note that the writer was informed by a German art critic at the fair, that the eminence to which the "modern movement" has attained in his country has been entirely due to the inspiration received by her architects while at Chicago in 1893. The keynote of our furniture designs they interpreted as "utility" and, although they previously reveled in the effete renaissance, a new chord in their decorations was struck, namely, the conforming of simplicity and beauty to utility. How well they have succeeded can be measured only by the extent to which other countries covet their genius.

Holland devotes one room of her art display to her objects of art workmanship, all of which are typical of the quaint, unassuming refinement of the country. France presents an exquisite line of things beautiful, which, if not essentially decorative, are certainly "chic" and ornamental. A proof as to the attractiveness of the French jewelry, for instance, may be derived from the fact that the attendant is frequently asked if those are Queen Victoria's jewels.

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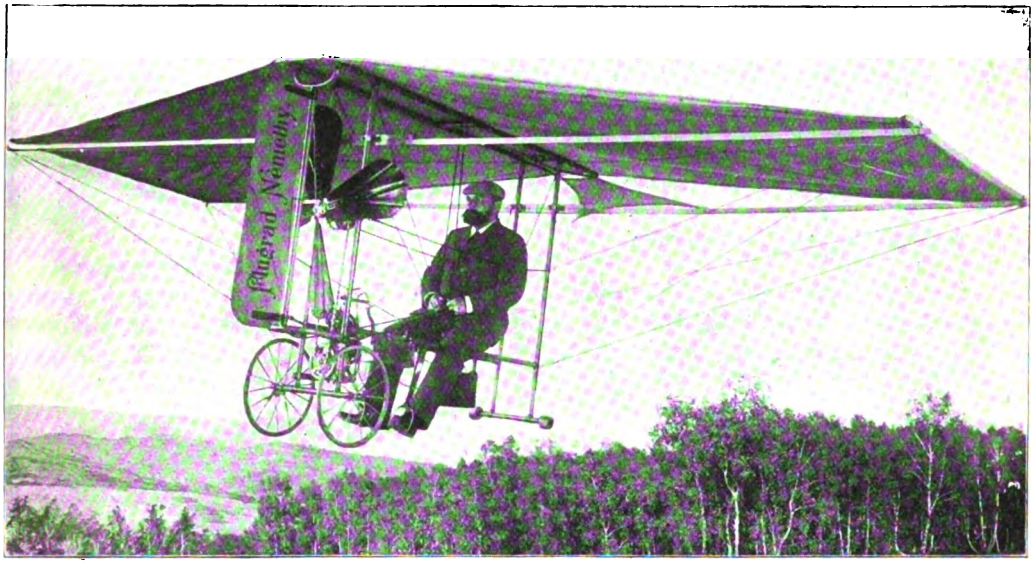
Not only do the "makers of beautiful things" enjoy their merited place at this Exposition, but architecture, as a fine art, is emphasized by permission being granted to the architect of any building on the ground to enter such building for competitive reward, providing the building has been duly accepted as an accredited exhibit MAUDE I. G. OLIVER.

A Flying Automobile

AN interesting machine, which may be used both as automobile and as airship, was designed by Mr. Emil Némethy, of Arad, Hungary, who, in a pamphlet recently published, claims to have found the definite solution of the flying problem. Némethy some years ago had constructed an empirical flying machine according to the familiar kite principle, while adapting the size of the bearing surfaces as well as the weight of the apparatus to the proportions observed in the case of big birds, and using an air screw rapidly driven by a gasoline motor to propel the machine. He, however, eventually abandoned this principle, as in the further course of his experiments and in connection with laborious observations while traveling, Némethy convinced himself of the fact that large birds in floating horizontally through the air do not expend any appreciable amount of energy, while their wings are placed nearly horizontally and not in the oblique position characteristic of a kite. The inventor accordingly adopted in the place of the kite as a model for his new flying machine another schoolboy's toy, namely, the paper arrow, which, as is well known, is capable of traveling through the air in a practically horizontal direction over great distances.

While his former machine was designed in a purely empirical way, a scientific theory was now elaborated by the inventor so as to have a basis of sufficient safety. The mean condition to be fulfilled by an arrow-shaped flying machine, according to this theory, would be that its weight is smaller than the weight of the air cushion formed below its surface and clinging to the same. The calculations of the inventor allow of this weight being ascertained in each special case.



THE NÉMETHY FLYING MACHINE IN ITS OLDER FORM

As will be seen from the accompanying figure, the Némethy flying machine is fitted with wheels, and, according to the speed imparted to the motor, may be used either as an airship or as an automobile, a continuous transition being possible from one condition to the other. For medium speeds, the machine rolls smoothly on the ground, while on a limiting speed being exceeded, it will rise in the air, and, on coming down from its flight, through a diminution of the speed, the machine will

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again go on its way like an ordinary automobile.

The inventor intends designing, in the near future, an airship fully corresponding to his theoretical deductions. So far he had not at his disposal the means of carrying out his design perfectly, but a provisional machine recently constructed by him, of the weight of about one hundred kg., has enabled him to start from the roof of his factory building with a powerful jump and to land on the ground in a perfectly stable condition and with remarkable safety, rolling on on the ground, as the motor remained in full activity. ALFRED GRADENWITZ.

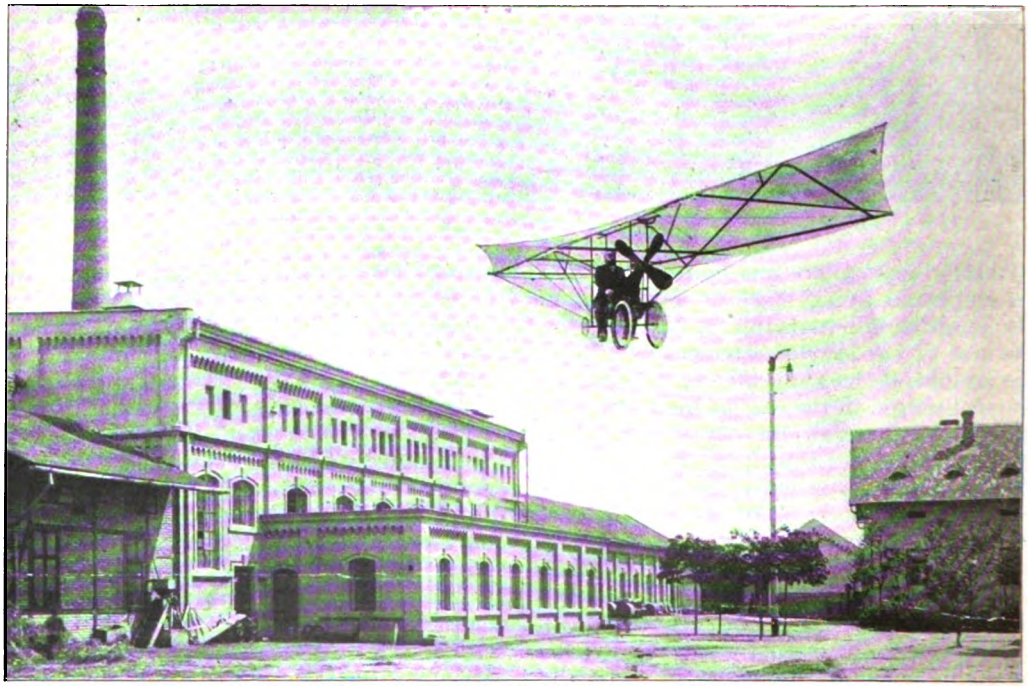
The Lake Cheesman Dam

FOR the past four years engineers and laborers in the Rocky Mountains have been quietly working out a plan which will be completed within a month and produce as its result a most remarkable structure, a dam built to form an enormous reservoir and to withstand the pressure of a head of water higher than that resisted by any other dam in the world.

The city of Denver has a population of about one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, but on account of peculiar conditions requires as much water as is usually sufficient for a city of twice that size. It is located at an elevation of five thousand feet above the sea, fifteen miles outside the first eastern foothills of the Rocky Mountains, in the semi-arid region where the precipitation is small, having averaged about fourteen inches in thirty years. This slight precipitation is very unevenly distributed, as the minimum, 8.48 inches, and the maximum, 21.43 inches, will show. A single month has been known to have a higher record than the sum total of the other eleven months of the year.

A portion of the city's water supply is obtained from Cherry Creek, out on the plain a few miles east of the city. Some is drawn from the South Platte River as it enters the city from the mountains. Bear Creek, where it leaves the mountains at Morrison, stores water in Marston Lake. But these sources are inadequate to meet its needs and the city looks to the canyon of the South Platte for its greatest supply.

That stream has its source in the mountains and before it enters the plain drains a tract of about three thousand square



THE NEMETHY FLYING MACHINE BEING LAUNCHED FROM THE ROOF OF THE FACTORY

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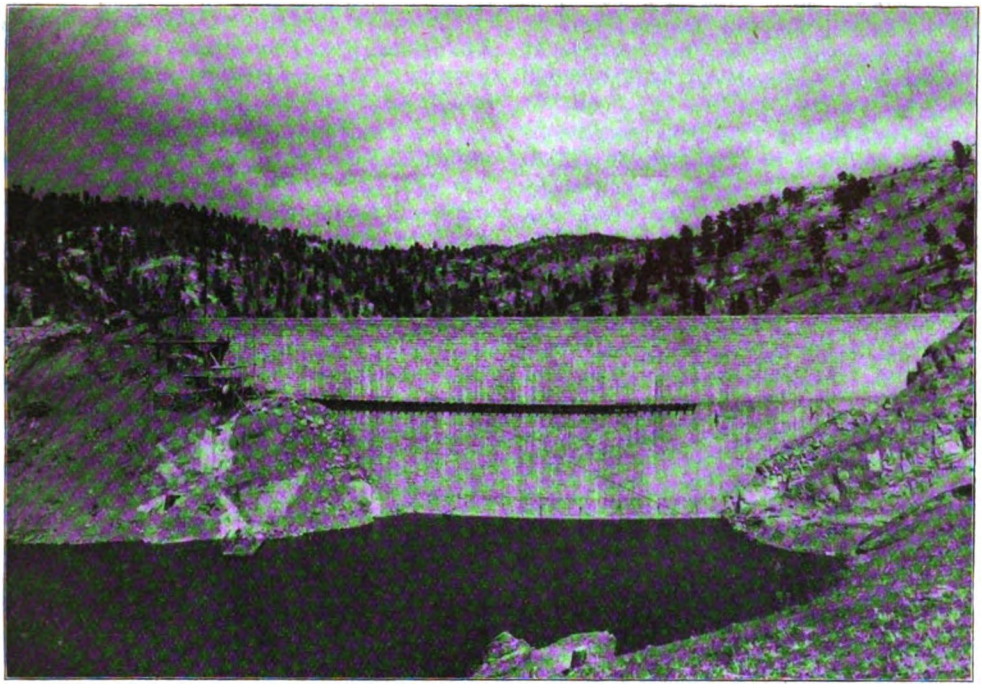

THE GREAT DAM AT LAKE CHEESMAN, COLORADO

Extreme height, 221 feet; thickness ten feet below ground, 176 feet; thickness at top, 18 feet; Length at bottom, 30 feet; length at top, 710 feet

miles. In that region there are some rains and a few violent cloud bursts that must be considered, but by far the greatest part of the precipitation is in the form of snow, which accumulates during the winter and melts quickly and runs off in the three months of May, June and July. The water to be obtained from this source is not only limited in amount and inconveniently irregular, but what does flow in the river is appropriated by existing claims and rights which cover more than the possible supply. The needs of the city, the small precipitation, the irregularity of the supply and the claims of prior water rights, all suggest one remedy—a reservoir system for the storage of every gallon of water not immediately needed for irrigation or the use of the city. Some years ago those who were interested in the problem discovered that nature had provided conditions most favorable for forming an immense artificial lake.

Fifty miles southwest of Denver, thirty miles within the mountains, Goose Creek flowed into the south fork of the South Platte, and a quarter of a mile below their junction their united waters plunged through a narrow granite gateway, only 30 feet wide at the bottom and broadening out to only 40, 130 and 710 feet wide at the elevations of 30, 90 and 217 feet.

The watershed drained by the streams above this point covered about eighteen hundred square miles. It was in the government forest reserve, and, as it would not be open for settlement, the water would be in a large measure free from such contamination as would result from human habitation. The surface of the tract to be converted into a reservoir was almost exclusively granite and sand, with little vegetation except trees. The walls of the canyons were very steep and so would give the reservoir great capacity with a relatively small surface exposed to evaporation. At the same time little chance would be given for the growth of such vegetation as develops in shallow water. Moreover, there was within a mile of the site of the proposed dam an abundance of excellent granite and sand. All the wood and timber required for the work could be obtained by clearing off the ground which was to be submerged. It was seen that a dam could easily be built

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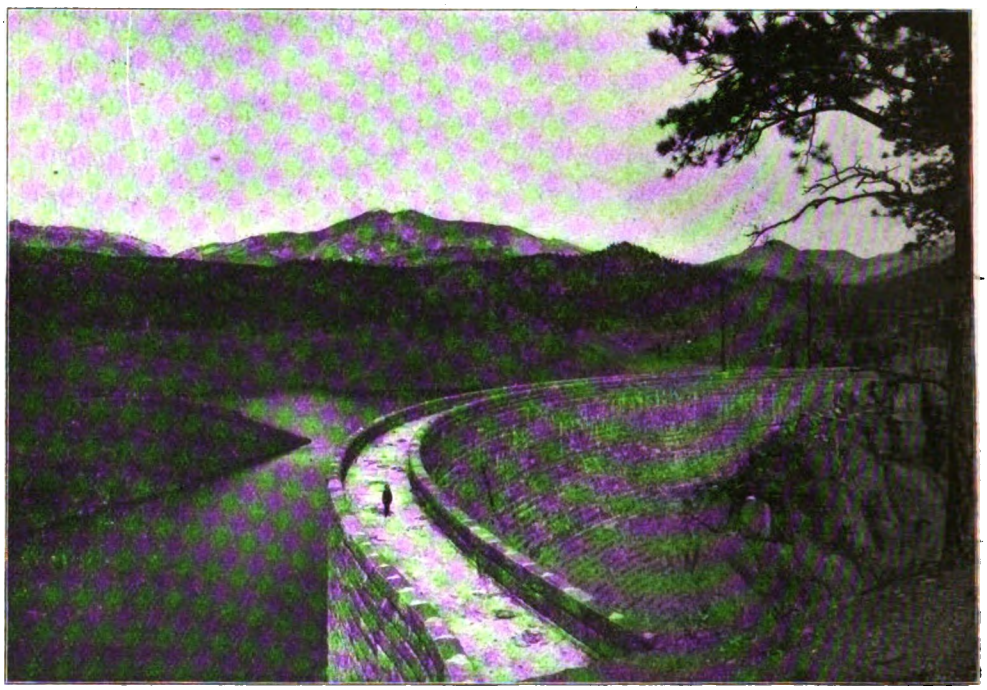
at this point which would form a reservoir with a surface five miles long, an area of 870 acres and a capacity of 3,500,000,000 cubic feet.

These remarkably favorable conditions have been utilized by the Denver Union Water Company. In 1898 work was begun on a rock-fill dam. The up-stream side was to be hand-laid stone, covered by concrete and faced by steel plates. Work was continued on this plan until May, 1900, when a great flood washed away the rock filling, although the facing stood intact. This disaster caused a change of plans which has resulted in the building of a great masonry dam. The granite mountains are so firm that the lowest excavation required at any place for the foundation was fifteen feet. The top of the parapet enclosing the roadway across the dam is 221 feet above the base, making the extreme elevation 236 feet. At the very bottom the thickness is 176 feet. This is gradually reduced until at the altitude of 190 feet the thickness is 18 feet. From that point to the top the thickness is uniform. The length at the bottom is 30 feet, at the top 710 feet.

The work contains 100,000 cubic yards of masonry. The stone used is gray granite. The up-stream face stones are rough pointed, two feet thick and laid in regular courses. The down-stream face stones are not dressed, two feet thick and are laid in steps. The interior of the wall was laid with the greatest care in regard to every particular. The bonding was made as nearly perfect as was possible. Leveling up was not allowed at any place. Each stone of whatever size was laid in a bed of soft mortar and every face was carefully covered. Eighty thousand barrels of cement of high test were furnished by the company to the contractor and used in the work. This, unfortunately, had to be freighted twenty-three miles across the mountains from the nearest railroad station.



TOP OF THE LAKE CHEESMAN DAM
Showing the curvature and massive construction of this great work

This dam is unique in that it embodies two plans and meets the requirements of two different mechanical theories. Its material and contents make it a gravity dam, one capable of resisting its water pressure by its own mass and weight. It is at the same time an arch dam, with its up-stream face built on a radius of four

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hundred feet. For additional security, the arch gives its superfluous strength to the mass; the mass adds its unnecessary weight to the arch, making the whole doubly safe beyond all possibility.

Within the dam there are nearly thirteen hundred feet of water and man-way tunnels. Water is drawn from the reservoir by means of five valves, set in three of these tunnels, having a capacity of 1,000 cubic feet per second and located at elevations of 10, 60 and 110 feet. At the elevation of 212 feet there is a spillway 300 feet long, which will be able to discharge five times the known maximum flood of the river.

EDWARD B. T. SPENCER.

Improving Station Grounds

THE effort to improve the appearance of railroad stations and their surroundings has made almost as rapid progress in recent years as have the forward movements for village improvement. A stranger's first impression of a city is gained from the railway station at which he alights and its environments. Up-to-date buildings, erected in pretty parks with trees, shrubs and flowers, impress a traveler so favorably that he is apt to choose that route again. The best railroads in the country consider the improvement of their grounds as a practical investment. Some have their own landscape gardener and his staff.

The Pennsylvania System, Boston & Albany and Old Colony developed excellent plans at about the same time. The last named has not carried out the plans as extensively as the other two, but these three pioneers have been such incentives for other roads that we find, among many, the Michigan Central with large greenhouses at Niles, Michigan, the Chicago & North-Western with a floral system and the Seaboard Air Line with fruit trees along stretches of track.

FLAG HOUSE ON CHICAGO, MILWAUKEE & ST. PAUL RAILROAD, NEAR MINNEAPOLIS
Flowers were cultivated by the flagman who stands in the doorway

The scheme for developing floral and horticultural possibilities along many of these railroads originated from the effort of some station agent to make his grounds more inviting. For instance, many years ago, E. A. Richardson was baggagemaster in a little station on the Boston & Albany road. He improved his grounds and out of this small beginning

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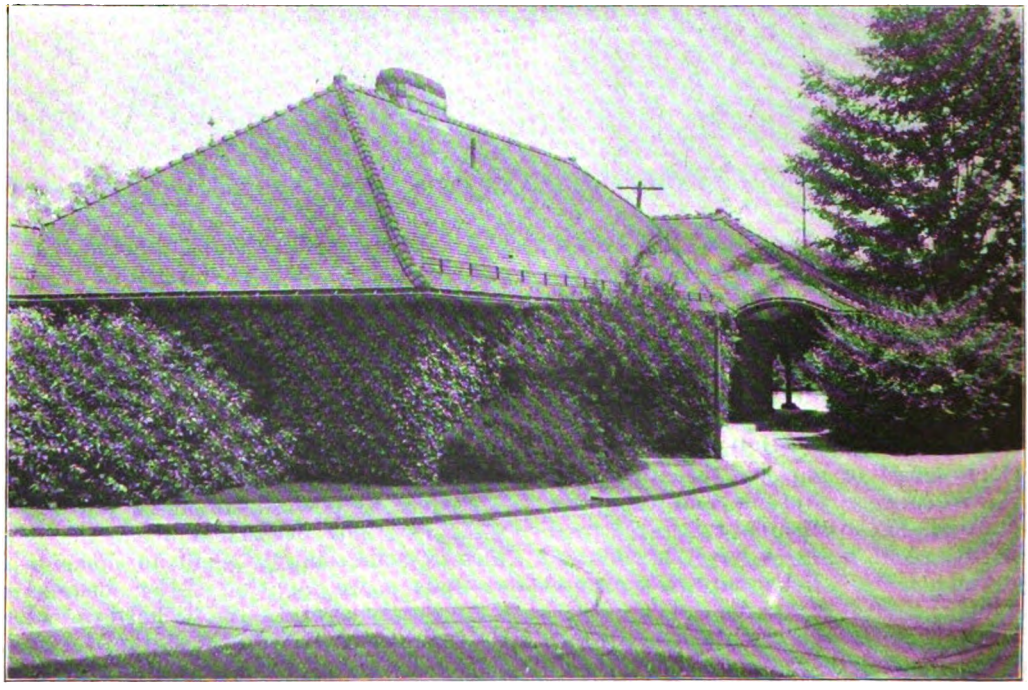
grew the beautiful Newton Circuit, which circles Boston and stops at twenty or more picturesque stations. To-day the enterprising baggageman is superintendent of grounds laid out by Frederick Law Olmstead. The plan adopted has been to set out shrubbery and decorative plants, that the decorative effect may be lasting. At certain seasons of the year roses climb the banks, and tall trees border the side of the track, willows adorn stretches of lawn and even in winter the esthetic charm remains long after flowers are gone. Stone walls are covered with ivy, and footpaths to the stations are bordered with bushes and trees.

In a somewhat similar manner the Pennsylvania lines began work on their extensive system. To-day pretty parks and floral embellishments are the rule and a complete scheme for making the railroad more beautiful has been inaugurated. The station agent at Jack's Run was the first to make efforts to beautify the grounds about his building and at present he is superintendent of parks. The headquarters of this great system is at Sewickley, Pennsylvania. Here thousands of plants are started which are distributed over the whole line. Elaborate designs are used for station grounds, clinging vines are planted over rocks, and efforts are made to give the route the appearance of an avenue of flowers and shrubbery. A corps of men is constantly at work keeping the grass in condition, and new designs in set figures appear yearly.

These are two notable instances of the improvement of railroads under men engaged for this purpose. An entirely different system has been adopted by a third railroad, with such success that both methods are to be considered by roads making an initial effort. The Boston & Maine offers yearly prizes for the best floral displays at station grounds. In this manner the competing agents and the public are both benefited. The plan is for an examining committee to travel over the length of the road, to weigh carefully the comparative merits of the display, as regards beauty, amount of work and advantages, and to decide upon the seven prizes which range from $50 to $5. Hundreds of stations receive yearly the smaller prizes. The road runs through several states and competition is sharp. Waltham and Arlington, both in Massachusetts, have repeatedly gained large prizes. Set figures and borders have



AUBURNDALE STATION, BOSTON AND ALBANY RAILROAD

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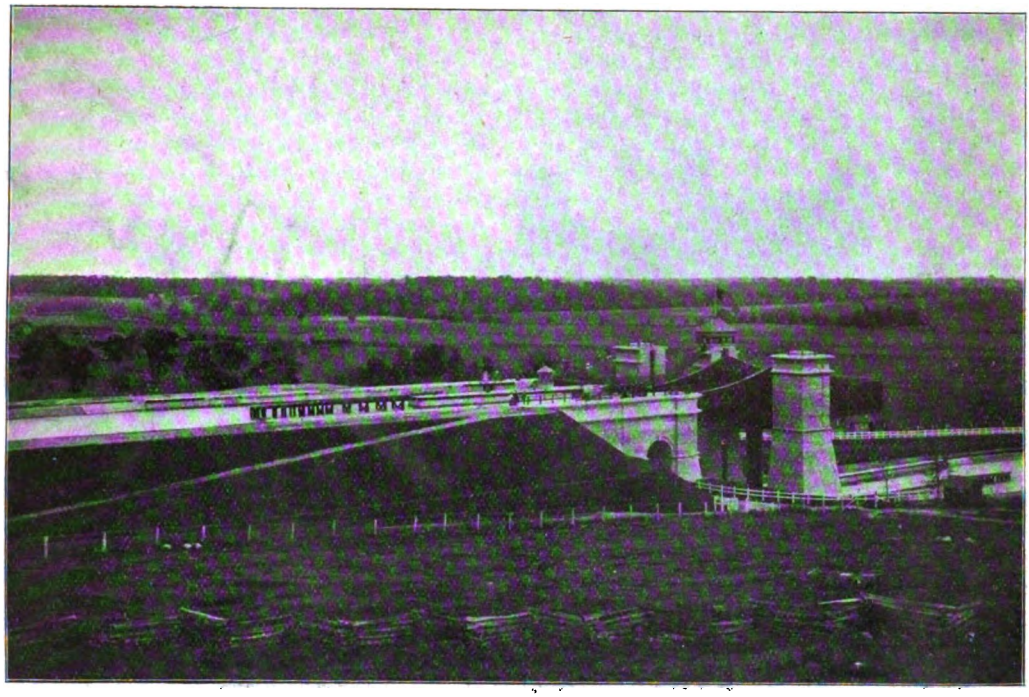

THE NEW HYDRAULIC LIFT LOCK AT PETERBOROUGH, ONTARIO

seemed popular and California poppies, cannas and cockscomb are used in profusion. Banks of flowers line the road near station grounds and well-kept lawns gladden the eyes of passengers. The possibilities of floral attractions in the way of hiding unsightly objects, as well as for decorative effects, are manifold. They put to shame the hideous billboards and advertisements which disfigure so many fences and buildings. In large stations, flowers and green grass and shrubs tone down the severity of the surroundings. When cities are laid out with streets focusing at the station, both city and railroad will realize that the approach must be a thing of beauty.

KATHERINE LOUISE SMITH.

The Great Lock at Peterborough, Ontario.

THE latest wonder of the world—or at least of the American continent—is the hydraulic lift lock recently completed and put in service at Peterborough, Ontario. England, France and Belgium each have a small lock worked on the lift or "elevator" principle, but the one at Peterborough is much the largest of its kind in existence and the only one so far constructed on this side of the Atlantic. It raises and lowers vessels sixty-five feet, performing the work of five ordinary locks with one movement.

Peterborough's lift lock is the most interesting feature of the Trent Waterway, as Canada's new navigation route between Georgian Bay and Lake Ontario is officially designated. It would be a misnomer to apply the word canal to this route of transportation, as it is a natural watercourse requiring only a few miles of actual canal to open up a stretch of navigable water about two hundred miles in length. The route is from Midland, Ontario, on Georgian Bay, through the beautiful chain of lakes and rivers that connect Lake Huron with Lake Ontario, to the town of Trenton, not far from Kingston.

For seventy-five years or more the Canadian government has carried on the work intermittently, but within the last decade a determined and consistent effort has been made to complete the project. As a result, there are now 165 miles of continuous inland navigation open to steamers and other small craft, and there

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DOWN STREAM VIEW OF THE PETERBOROUGH LOCK ON THE OPENING DAY

remain only three miles of actual canal to be constructed in order to finish the entire work. The Trent Waterway will afford the shortest water route for export grain from the Northwest to tidewater. From the Lake Superior district to Liverpool, via the Trent Waterway and Montreal, the distance is over seven hundred miles less than via the Erie Canal and New York. With a uniform depth of eight feet over sills in all its locks, the Trent route is designed to handle eight-hundred-ton barges having a capacity of twenty-five thousand bushels; and it is claimed that grain can be carried from Duluth or Port Arthur to Montreal for three cents a bushel.

Less than $5,000,000 have been spent on the work so far, and it is estimated that for another $5,000,000 the work will be completed in two years' time. Canada will, therefore, have to be reckoned with as a strong competitor with the United States in the export grain business.

The Peterborough lift lock is a cyclopean structure of concrete and steel. Indeed, the substructure of this lock is said to be the largest monolithic mass of concrete in the world, containing as it does over twenty-six thousand cubic yards. The accompanying illustration will convey a very good idea of the appearance of the lock and its method of operation.

It consists of two immense steel chambers or pontoons measuring 140 by 33 feet, supported by heavy steel trusses of the double cantilever style upon cast-iron rams 90 inches in diameter, and working up and down between guiding towers. These chambers when filled with 8 feet of water weigh 1,700 tons. The rams have a 65-foot stroke and work in two steel, water-tight presses, located 70 feet below the surface. These presses are connected by a pipe, in which is a valve operated from the lockmaster's cabin at the top of the middle tower. A vessel to be lowered or raised is towed into the chamber, the gates closed and the valve opened. Then the upper chamber, which has been loaded down with a few extra inches of water, in order to give it additional weight, slowly descends, forcing the other chamber up correspondingly. Not more than twelve minutes is required to make the lockage. There is, of course, considerable auxiliary machinery connected with the plant, to prevent leakage, operate the gates and capstan, etc., but the essential points are as outlined. C. H. ALLISON.

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Bourne Mills Profit-Sharing and the Fall River Strike

WHEN Mr. George A. Chace, of Fall River, Massachusetts, a year ago last February, told the Economic Club of Boston about the profit-sharing system in the Bourne Cotton Mills, of which he is treasurer, and frankly declared: "Do not count upon it to cure strikes—you would better arbitrate," he showed himself a more practical observer of human nature than most of the enthusiastic experimenters in new ways of solving the labor problem. That he was well justified in having no illusions on the subject has been made clear twice already this present year. A strike broke out among the weavers in the Bourne Mills last March, due to a demand by the union for discharge of a certain employe; and partly for that reason, partly because of the acute depression in New England cotton manufacturing, the mills were shut down for more than three months.

Now the Bourne experiment has been watched by a good many interested people for years, some in the expectation, if not hope, that it would fail, others with growing confidence that it would weather all storms and prove its permanent value. It was started in 1889, at the behest of the aged president of the company, Jonathan Bourne, who died before the scheme was fairly under way, and for most of the time since then Treasurer Chace has been its administrator and sponsor. Naturally it has become somewhat a matter of pride with him and with the Bourne corporation, especially since the Bourne policy in this respect has never been popular in the cotton manufacturing trade, its defeat having been regularly prophesied. Therefore it is not surprising that as soon as the recent labor troubles were straightened out, in June, the Bourne management made a heroic effort to demonstrate the vitality of their favorite idea by declaring the "thirtieth consecutive semi-annual dividend," and announcing that the system would be continued another six months.

A month later, and what a change in the scene! The Bourne Mills in common with practically all others in Fall River are closed again, and for nobody knows how long. The reason seems to be that they have had enough, for the time being at least, of running the plant "for the benefit of the help and the community." The Fall River mill owners decided to meet the threatening market conditions by standing together for a twelve and one-half per cent blanket cut in wages, and posted notices in all the mills to that effect. Monday morning, July 25, the operatives walked out in a body.

When the mills reopen will the Bourne management still hold to its faith in profit-sharing? Or, what is really more to the point this time, will the operatives hold to their share of the necessary faith? Or, are they likely to suggest that they can get along without dividends on their wages if the wages themselves are not moved several times faster in the opposite direction? The dividend of last June amounted to four per cent, the cut of July is twelve and one-half per cent. If the four per cent illustrated the fraternal spirit which is the "fundamental principle" of the profit-sharing system, presumably the cut of three times that amount is to be labeled "business"—and what tyro does not know by heart the industrial maxim that "business and philanthropy won't mix!"

Fortunately the maxim is a disputed one, so far as "philanthropy" means not charity but simply frank and intelligent concern in the welfare of employes on a basis of mutual self-respect; but there is no use denying the difficulty of making the two things agree when an industry itself is running practically at a loss. The Bourne management may have been unable to resist the pressure any longer, especially when the success of the proposed cut was shown to depend on all the mills standing together. But the old weakness of profit-sharing here comes to the front again—the weakness that always makes organized labor look at it askance—the introduction of a constantly uncertain and variable element into the slender incomes of working people, and the danger of regarding that as in some sense a substitute for what could apparently be just as well paid in the form of wages, and which if so paid would go to the worker as regular economic earnings without a tinge of that gratuity element which is seldom welcome, however good the intent behind it.

HAYES ROBBINS.

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BOOKS AND READING

Methods of Industrial Peace. By Nicholas Paine Gilman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. x, 436. $1.60 net.

Professor Gilman has been known for a number of years as a sturdy champion of profit sharing as a means of obviating differences between the employer and the employed. His present volume does not continue his arguments in this line, but presents very completely the data required by the historian for the study of the various sorts of methods adopted recently by the different groups of employers in the interest of industrial peace. In these data he has included documents illustrating the various forms of collective bargaining, as well as statistical tables of different sorts, and the essential parts of the acts of New Zealand covering what is commonly known as compulsory arbitration.

On the whole, Professor Gilman believes in collective bargaining and holds that the labor unions should be incorporated. His discussions, however, recognize that there are two sides to the question, and he has presented both in the words of their respective champions. But is it true that "the unions commit a grievous error in their opposition to incorporation as legal persons"? Until proper legislation is established covering all the conditions which such incorporation of these bodies involves, it is a fair question whether the labor union could be equitably treated as a corporate individual. At the same time we are inclined to think that Professor Gilman is right in insisting that by incorporation labor unions would be held legally to the proper administration of their responsibilities. If present legislation does not cover the case, let us have new. No one, except the partisan, who reads this painstaking and illuminating volume will fail to come to this conclusion: The labor union at present is possessed of more powers than it has legal responsibility. As such it is an anomaly in our body politic and is as great a danger to industrial and political peace as is the trust it opposes.

Weather Influences. By Edwin Grant Dexter, Ph.D. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xxxi, 286. $2.

A most fruitful subject for scientific investigation has been taken up by Professor Dexter, and the results are interesting though necessarily meager. Everybody knows that low barometer and high humidity make many people miserable, and lower the capacity for work. So, in a general way, we all have our "off days" when the direction of the wind or the temperature is blamed more than any mental infirmity. But nobody has hitherto undertaken to study on an extensive scale the actual fluctuations of human health, manners and morals in their relation to the weather. Professor Dexter has performed a vast amount of labor in gathering and collating statistics bearing upon this question. He has obtained certain unexpected and inexplicable conclusions as well as confirmation of the familiar generalizations. If he has after all failed to throw much light upon the reason why certain states of the atmosphere so profoundly affect mental as well as physical activity, the reader is not likely to complain; for the ultimate problems of physiological psychology which lie at the bottom of the whole matter are not to be solved by the statistician but by the physiologist. The data upon which the investigation is based are sufficiently varied to give a broad induction. They include statistics from New York city and Denver as to attendance and conduct in the public schools, arrests for drunkenness, assault and battery, murders, suicides, records of penitentiaries, hospitals and insane asylums, clerical errors in banks, and other facts bearing upon human efficiency; in all cases the figures are such as can be accurately dated, and therefore compared with the daily weather records of the two cities included in the study. The graphical method of representing the comparison is that of plotting two curves for each group of facts, one a curve of normal expectancy based on the average, and the other a curve of actual occurrences. The comparison of these with the weather curves of rise and fall of temperature, pressure, humidity, precipitation, sunshine and winds furnishes the basis for induction. Among the many curious and interesting facts brought out by the investigation is that while moderately low humidity is most favorable to comfort and efficiency, an extremely dry atmosphere, in any climate, causes an increase of disorder among children, criminals and people in general. High winds, too, commonly thought to be so disturbing to mental equanimity, do not show such a result in the tables. The book is one which should be read by every teacher, as bearing directly upon educational problems. Besides the scientific discussion it contains several interesting chapters on weather lore in literature and history.

The Evolution of Modern Liberty. By George L. Scherger, Ph.D. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. Pp. 284. $1.10 net.

This compact volume is a thorough-going study of the various attempts made through the Middle Ages and the eighteenth century to formulate and safeguard political liberty. Especially is space given to the exposition of the thought of the eighteenth century as it culminated in the "American Bill of Rights" and the "French Declaration of the Rights of Man and the Citizen." At the same time Professor Scherger is not oblivious of the fact that the wonderful out-

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put of the eighteenth century was due to the speculations and struggles of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. In accounting for the interesting fact that the great democratic movement began in America and spread to France, he has gathered together material which is probably not to be found elsewhere, at least in the same compact form. Even the well-known preface of Professor Stephens does not cover the matter quite as thoroughly.

It is to be hoped that the author will follow this volume with another dealing with the more complicated problems of the nineteenth century. The thesis that liberty has too often been identified with sovereignty and so has crushed out the rights of the individual, is one which will repay close study in the light of present tendencies. As it is, Professor Scherger's volume furnishes an admirable approach to a consideration of socialism as a political system.

Practical Morals. A Treatise on Universal Education. By John K. Ingram, LL.D. London: A. & C. Black; New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. x, 167.

This little volume is an anachronism. Professor Ingram has set forth in brief compass Positivism as an actual method of education. There is in it nothing which is new to one acquainted with Comte's work, but most persons will read it with astonishment. Positivism has rendered no small service to education, but all its permanent contributions have already been embodied in current educational philosophy. To break up life into periods of seven years, to establish the various ceremonies in imitation of the rites of the Catholic Church, to teach children to pray to their mothers, to reorganize society in such a way that every man will retire at sixty-three, to give good advice to younger men, is certainly a dream that most of us thought belonged to a couple of generations since. Yet here it is in Professor Ingram's little book. We can not treat the volume seriously, but can readily see in it an intelligible and compact presentation of the educational ideas of the founder of Positivism.

The Masters of English Literature. By Stephen Gwynn. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 424. $1.10 net.

There are many one-volume manuals of English literature which attempt to serve the double purpose of college text-books and surveys for the general reader. They usually fail to attract the general reader. Either by a multiplicity of detail, or distracting footnotes, or excellent but intrusive bibliographies, they repel those who wish to read about literature rather than to study the subject. Mr. Gwynn has succeeded in avoiding these dangers. His freshness of style, excellent sense of proportion, and healthy independence of judgment render his book acceptable to the average reader. It is true that he is not altogther free from the academic convention as to a large list of "obligatory books" which all educated persons are assumed to have read; but he shows from time to time that he is a little ashamed of the insincerity of this pedantic dogma by conceding large liberty of choice to the individual. As a matter of fact his work is really written to make it unnecessary for ordinary people who are not special students of literature to read such of the minor classics as they find intolerably dull, and yet wish to know a little about. His critical judgment is sound, and he seems to have no hobbies. The illustrative selections from authors are remarkably well chosen. The book is a delight to read, and will refresh the scholar as well as guide and stimulate the beginner.

How to Solve the Race Problem. By Jesse Lawson, A.M., LL.B. 1904. Washington, D. C.: Beresford. Pp. 286. $1.00 net.

The meeting of the Washington Conference upon the race problem, held last November under the auspices of the National Sociological Society, brought forth some exceedingly thoughtful addresses and papers. The Proceedings of the conference are issued by Jesse Lawson, president of the National Sociological Society, and a member of the permanent commission which was appointed by that society on the race problem.

Perhaps as important paper as any other is that by Bishop Halsey, of the C. M. E. Church. Bishop Halsey proposes that "a state or states, or a territory or part or parts of a territory within the limits of the United States," be set apart where the black race can be segregated. He would have this segregation gradual, noncompulsory and classified by qualified citizenship and maintained by the government. In this territory no white citizen should be allowed to obtain citizenship unless identified with the negro race by marriage. Bishop Halsey's paper is certainly radical and rests upon the assumption that it is absolutely impossible for two races to live together in peace in the South, except the negro as a race lives in the condition of serfdom or slavery. While not pretending to have any particular wisdom on the subject, we do not think that the Bishop's proposal is either practical or that his general position is in accordance with the actual situation. It is not too much to hope that in the course of time the problem will gain some other solution. In the meantime it is the duty of all good citizens to ponder seriously the situation. Nowhere will it be more intelligently presented by the leaders and friends of the American negro race than in this volume.

The Letters of Charles Lamb. Newly arranged, with additions. Edited with introduction and notes by Alfred Ainger. London and New York: The Macmillan Company. Two volumes. Pp. xxxvi, 404; xv, 396. $2.50.

Lamb's letters were edited in 1900 by Mr. Alfred Ainger in a thorough and scholarly fashion, and his edition at once superseded the earlier volumes with their many defects. It is now reissued in two handy volumes of the Eversley Series, with about twenty letters hitherto unpublished. Lamb's life is pretty thoroughly covered in all its phases of joy and sorrow by this collection of his inimitable epistles. His unfailing merriment is ever on the surface,

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even though beneath lies the pathos of weakness and weary struggle. Lamb's friends were good to him; they were always sending him pigs and pictures and poems to brighten his dull existence, and he repaid them richly with epigrams for their pigs, praise, tempered with acute criticism, for their poems. His lifelong intimacy with Coleridge throws much light on the latter's character and writings. Intimate association also with Wordsworth and Southey is marked during the early years of the century. It is an altogether attractive picture that the author of Elia unconsciously draws of himself as he makes light of his troubles with poor Mary, extracts fun from the most unpromising commonplaces, and reveals every now and then a heart full of gentleness and charity. To the student of literature and of human nature these letters must rank among the most fruitful of the century.

The Watchers of the Trail. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. Pp. 361. $2.00.

Evidently the recent criticism to which "nature writers" have been subjected has bitten in. Mr. Roberts devotes his preface to a defense of his method. Perhaps he needs to turn apologist least of his class. He has obviously given human interpretation to very real doings of very real animals. Every page has the ring of sincerity. The different animals who watch the trail are not play actors. Their mental processes may be somewhat less than Mr. Roberts describes, but the animals themselves are no make-believes. The man who can read Mr. Roberts without longing to get back to nature is made of strange material.

The Seeker. By Harry Leon Wilson. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. 341. $1.50.

Harry Leon Wilson, in "The Seeker," has traveled far from the story of "The Spenders." In fact "The Seeker" is hardly to be called a novel; it is rather a theological argument put in the form of a story. The grandson of a rigidly orthodox minister rebels against the arbitrary theology in which he finds himself, and thus losing confidence in any authority sinks to the lowest moral depths. He is rescued in the West (Mr. Wilson, like Mr. Garland, still believes in Paradise) by a man of profound and simple untheological faith. As a result of this moral regeneration, he returns to his home, gives away a fortune to his hypocritical brother, and, as we are led to infer, marries the brother's wife. The denouement is somewhat unexpected and its theological inferences somewhat perplexing.

The story deals with an exceedingly interesting problem, namely, the reaction of the deeply inquisitive mind upon the type of theology which is rapidly passing away, but it is lacking in its earlier parts in dramatic movement. It would have been improved by the omission of much of the theological discussion and the treatment of Bernal Linford's troubles through the medium of his actual experiences. None the less, we who have pinned our faith to Mr. Wilson can see in it elements of strength. It is a sturdy polemic against the materialized doctrine of heaven and hell, and the perpetuation of the Old Testament conception of God in a scientific age. What we miss in it are the genial human touch that was the great charm of "The Spenders," and the dramatic intensity of "The Lions of The Lord." Evidently Mr. Wilson regards novel-writing as something more than a means of amusement. For that we are grateful, and dare to hope that his next volume will be marked by a combination of the qualities which each of its predecessors has too exclusively emphasized.

"Susan Clegg and Her Friend Mrs. Lathrop" (Little, Brown & Co., $1.00), have already been introduced by Anne Warner to the readers of the *Century Magazine*, but they are well worth meeting again within the covers of a book. Especially so when they are accompanied by so genuinely a humorous story as that of the "Minister's Vacation." Susan Clegg is another sort of Yankee woman from that depicted by Miss Wilkins. She has the aggressive, unattractive selfishness to offset the sentiment and self-sacrifice of Miss Wilkins' characters. But she is an interesting specimen. The book is one to be read aloud. It has genuine humor and is full of realistic touches. Everybody has known a Susan Clegg and a Mrs. Lathrop, and to have known them is to want to hear about them.

It is hard to see why Irving Bacheller should have abandoned the field in which he has been so successful, and which has still a wealth of material ready for his hand, to write "Vergilius, A Tale of the Coming of Christ." (Harper's, $1.35.) That the volume has literary grace, and, in two places at least, dramatic power, can not be denied, but its *raison d'être* is difficult to understand. At the best, it is only a sketch, and its strongest character, as we should expect—the old Augustus—is really only the background of the story. There is material for a tremendous novel in the life of Antipater, and if Mr. Bacheller had only developed his material he might have produced a volume that would be treated seriously. As it is, much to our regret, we must say that it is of little consequence. The final chapters in which a Roman knight and his enemy are saved from fighting a duel on the plains of Bethlehem by hearing the songs of angels and seeing the newly born Jesus, are the sort of writing which most of us had thought English literature had outgrown. We trust that a writer of so much literary charm as Mr. Bacheller will not again attempt to emulate Sienkiewitz and Lew Wallace, but give us more stories of "D'ri" and "Eben Holden."

The "American Boy's Life of Theodore Roosevelt," by Edward Stratemeyer (Lee & Shepard, $1.25), is just what it pretends to be. Any boy can read it and get good from it, because he will be interested in it. It is to be hoped that every boy will read it. On the whole, the volume runs steadily along biographical lines and is calculated to stir boys to high ideals by facts rather than by sermonic attachments. It has good illustrations and deserves large circulation.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Army.—September 9.—The army maneuvers in Virginia ended in the victory of the attacking brown army, under General Bell, over the defending blue army, under General Grant.

Casualties.—August 7.—One hundred and six persons were killed in the wreck of the Rio Grande passenger train No. 11, seven miles from Pueblo, Colorado. The bridge on which the train was crossing Fountain Creek was broken by a flood resulting from a cloudburst.

—August 19.—A tornado killed three persons and wounded forty, and destroyed much property at St. Louis.

—August 20.—A tornado killed fifteen persons, injured two hundred and destroyed $3,000,000 worth of property at Minneapolis, St. Paul and other points in Minnesota.

Cotton.—August 25.—The totals of the annual report of the cotton crop of the United States, issued by the New Orleans Cotton Exchange, showed only 10,011,374 bales for 1903-1904, against 10,727,559 bales for the previous year.

Deaths.—August 6.—The Rev. Dr. E. Winchester Donald, rector of Trinity church, Boston, died at Ipswich, Massachusetts.

—August 9.—Ex-Senator George Graham Vest, of Missouri, died at Sweet Springs, Missouri.

—August 19.—Rear-Admiral E. M. Shepard, U. S. N., retired, died at Jaffrey, New Hampshire.

—August 31.—Dr. Thomas Herran, who was minister to Washington for Colombia for several years up to the Panama incident, died at Liberty, New York.

—September 8.—Rev. George C. Lorimer, for many years pastor of Tremont Temple, Boston, died at Aix-les-Bains, at the age of sixty-six years.

Diplomacy.—August 8.—Secretary Hay informed Chekib Bey, the Turkish minister to the United States, that the patience of the American Government is about exhausted.

Education.—August 23.—Edmund J. James, president of Northwestern University, was elected to succeed Andrew S. Draper as president of the University of Illinois.

Grand Army.—August 17.—The thirty-eighth national encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic began at Boston.

—August 19.—General Wilmon W. Blackmar, of Boston, was elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.

Labor.—September 8.—The butchers' strike, after lasting fifty-nine days, ended with the surrender of the union men.

Lynching.—August 16.—A mob at Statesboro, Georgia, burned at the stake two negroes who had been convicted of murder and sentenced to death.

—August 29.—A negro was lynched at Laramie, Wyoming.

—August 29.—A negro was lynched at Portal, Bulloch county, Georgia.

—August 30.—A negro was lynched at Hickman, Kentucky.

—September 4.—A negro was lynched at Crossett, Arkansas.

—September 7.—A mob at Huntsville, Alabama, defied the militia and sheriff, burned the jail and lynched a negro prisoner.

Navy.—The battleship Louisiana was launched at Newport News shipyard.

Politics.—August 8.—The Supreme Court of Wisconsin decided that the "Stalwart," or Spooner ticket is the regular Republican ticket, and that the La Follette faction is not entitled to recognition as Republican. This was in harmony with the decision of the Republican National Convention.

—August 31.—At the convention in Chicago of the newly chartered Continental party, a platform was adopted by the thirty-four delegates present. General Charles H. Howard, of Chicago, was nominated for President and George H. Shibley, of Washington, D. C., for Vice-President, of the United States.

—September 8.—Charles Bell was elected Governor of Vermont by a Republican majority of 31,556.

Science.—September 8.—As a feature prepared for the International Geographical Congress, in session at Washington, signals were flashed around the world.

Philippine Islands

Moros.—August 23.—The Moros, under Datto Ali, on the island of Mindanao, were adopting guerrilla tactics against the American troops. For this reason Major-General Leonard Wood had organized four picked fighting companies, composed of 100 men each, infantry and cavalry, to operate independently.

Colombia

Politics.—August 8.—General Rafael Reyes assumed office as president of Colombia, succeeding Senor Marroquin. A new cabinet was formed.

Brazil

Diplomacy.—August 8.—The Brazil-British Guiana boundary question was settled.

Paraguay

Revolution.—August 13.—Insurgents captured several ports.

—September 5.—Revolutionists captured the town of Villa Reyes, with its garrison of 200 men.

Uruguay

Revolution.—August 23.—The revolutionists, under General Sarvia, numbering about eighteen

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thousand men, captured Santa Rosa, with a large supply of arms and ammunition. The government forces amounted to twenty thousand men.

—September 6.—In a three days' battle, the government troops, led by General Vasquez, minister of war, were disastrously defeated by the insurgents. On both sides two thousand were killed and four thousand wounded.

Samoa

Cession.—August 8.—The Manua Islands, with a population of fifteen hundred inhabitants, were ceded to the United States by the king of the group.

British Empire

Casualties.—August 14.—The British bark Inverkip was sunk and twenty persons were drowned as the result of a collision off Fastnet Rock, Ireland.

Curzon.—August 8.—King Edward approved the reappointment of Lord Curzon as Viceroy of India.

Diplomacy.—August 8.—It was announced in the House of Commons that Germany, Austria, Italy and Russia had recognized the clause in the Anglo-French conventions that established English paramountcy in Egypt.

—August 23.—King Edward approved the appointment of Sir Francis Leveson Bertie, assistant under-secretary of state for foreign affairs, as British ambassador to France, to succeed Sir Edmund J. Monson, on the latter's retirement at the end of the year.

Canada

Legislation.—August 5.—The Canadian House of Commons passed the anti-trust bill aimed especially at American tobacco concerns, which were charged with crushing out the Canadian industry by having exclusive contracts with their patrons.

—August 6.—The Canadian Senate passed the anti-tobacco-combine bill.

Australia

Capital.—August 9.—Dalgety, New South Wales, was chosen as the Australian federal capital.

Sweden and Norway

Diplomacy.—August 12.—An arbitration convention between Sweden and Norway and Great Britain was signed at Stockholm.

Navy.—August 8.—The Norwegian government decided to establish an important naval base on the northern coast of Norway, the site to be strongly fortified. The scheme was deemed necessary for the protection of Norwegian independence and for the defense of the Scandinavian Peninsula.

Holland

Ministry.—August 30.—Professor Dr. T. M. C. Assen, an authority on international law, was appointed minister of state for The Hague, without portfolio. He is a member of the Permanent Arbitration Court at The Hague.

France

Deaths.—August 10.—Ex-Premier Pierre Marie Ernest Waldeck-Rousseau died at Corbeil, France.

Switzerland

Religion.—August 30.—The second International Congress of the History of Religions opened at Basel, with over three hundred delegates from all parts of the world present.

Turkish Empire

Casualties.—August 29.—An accidental fire destroyed the American School for Boys at Erzerum, Asiatic Turkey.

Deaths.—August 29.—Ex-Sultan Mehemet Murad V., brother of Sultan Abdul Hamid, died in Constantinople. He was dethroned in 1876 and was adjudged insane and kept in confinement until his death.

Diplomacy.—August 7.—The American cruisers Olympia, Cleveland and Baltimore, under the command of Rear-Admiral Jewell, sailed from Villafranche for Smyrna in connection with the questions at issue between the United States and Turkey.

—August 12.—The American squadron, consisting of the Olympia, Baltimore and Cleveland, anchored at Smyrna.

—August 13.—Turkey yielded to the American demands for equal treatment of American citizens and schools in Turkey under the most favored nation agreement.

Massacres.—August 6.—It was reported that Turkish soldiers and Kurds destroyed the villages of Outchkilissa, Koomlouboujak, Gougon, Karabzar and Sayto, in Armenia, on July 23, massacring most of the inhabitants.

Russian Empire

Casualties.—August 30.—Seventy persons were drowned by the capsizing of a ferry-boat at Lodz, Russian Poland.

Ministry.—September 8.—Prince Peter Sviatopolk-Mirski was appointed successor to the late M. von Plehve as minister of the interior.

Reforms.—August 23.—The Czar issued a manifesto, on the day of the christening of his son and heir, the Grand Duke Alexis Nicholaievitch, granting a general amnesty to all political offenders not charged with murder and announcing sweeping reforms throughout the empire, including Finland.

Royalty.—August 12.—Czar Nicholas announced the birth of a son, to be heir to the Russian throne. The child was given the name of Alexis.

Finland

Diet.—August 28.—As Grand Duke of Finland, Czar Nicholas issued a decree summoning the four estates of Finland—the nobles, clergy, burghers and peasants—to meet in ordinary session December 6, 1904, and commanding the meeting of the Finnish Diet in 1907. This was the first imperial act of conformity to the letter of the Finnish constitution—which convokes the Diet once in five years—since Finland came under Russian sovereignty.

Chinese Empire

See Tibet.

Tibet

War.—August 3.—The British forces encamped before Lassa.

—August 4.—Colonel Younghusband, accompanied by his troops, paid a ceremonial visit to

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the Chinese amban in Lassa, and was well received. This was the first time European troops entered the Tibetan capital.

—September 9.—Colonel Younghusband, head of the British mission, and the council of regency at Lassa signed a treaty between Tibet and Great Britain. Arrangements were completed for the return of the British mission to India.

Japan

Deaths.—August 7.—Lieutenant-General Yamaguchi, of the Fifth Division, who commanded the Japanese troops during the Boxer uprising, died at Tokyo after a lingering illness. The Mikado made the general a viscount on his deathbed.

War.—August 6.—The Vladivostok prize court adjudged the sunken steamer Knight Commander and its cargo a lawful prize.

—August 8.—Premier Balfour stated in the House of Commons that the British government adhered to its contention that there was no adequate justification for the sinking of the British steamer Knight Commander by the Vladivostok fleet.

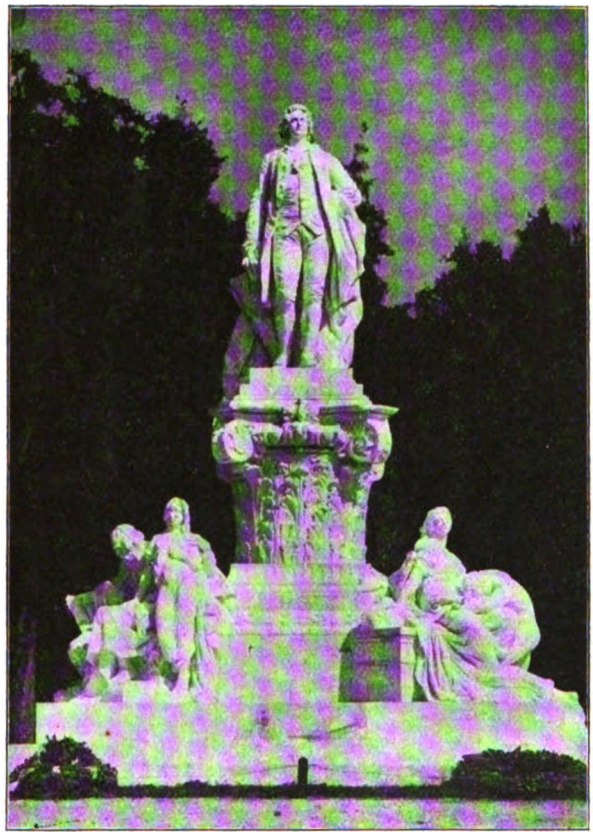
—August 8.—Secretary Hay, in an identical note to all the American ambassadors in Europe, stated that the United States refused to recognize Russia's assertion that coal and raw cotton are contraband of war.

—August 10.—The Russian fleet made a desperate attempt to escape from Port Arthur, and was scattered, after a battle lasting six hours. The Japanese fleet sustained no damage. Admiral Wittsoeft was killed on the Czarevitch.

—August 11.—The Russian destroyer Ryeshitelni reached Chifu, received permission to remain till the close of the war and was accordingly dismantled. Then Japanese destroyers entered the harbor and towed the Ryeshitelni away as a prize of war.

—August 12.—Russia replied to Great Britain's representations in the case of the Knight Commander, maintaining the right to destroy neutral vessels carrying contraband where circumstances rendered it impossible to bring such a vessel before a prize court.

—August 13.—The Russian Port Arthur fleet, scattered in the battle of August 10, was reported at the following points: At Shanghai, the cruiser Askold and one destroyer; at Kiau-



THE NEW STATUE OF GOETHE AT ROME
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chau, the battleship Czarevitch, the cruiser Pallada and three destroyers; at Port Arthur, the battleships Retzivan, Pobieda, Peresviet, Poltava, Sevastopol; the cruiser Diana; on the high sea, the cruiser Novik, compelled to leave Kiauchau at the end of the twenty-four-hour limit; captured, one destroyer at Chefoo; rumored captured, two destroyers on the Chinest coast.

—August 13.—The Chinese governor of Mukden issued a proclamation welcoming the Japanese.

—August 14.—Admiral Kamimura's fleet defeated the Russian Vladivostok squadron in the Straits of Korea, sinking the cruiser Rurik and badly damaging the cruisers Rossia and Gromoboi.

—August 20.—The Japanese cruisers Tsushima and Chitose sank the Russian cruiser Novik off Korsakovsk, Sakhalin.

—August 21.—The British steamer Comedian was overhauled by a Russian volunteer cruiser off the South African coast.

—August 23.—The Japanese captured Itseshan, next to Golden Hill the most important of the Port Arthur forts....The Russian battleship Sevastopol was disabled by striking a mine in Port Arthur harbor.

—August 23.—The British naval court of inquiry at Shanghai decided that the British steamer Hipsang was sunk by the Russian torpedo boat destroyer Ratstoropuy without cause, some of the passengers on the Hipsang being killed and wounded by Russian shells.

—August 23.—A great battle began at Liaoyang. The Russian force was estimated at two hundred thousand and the Japanese at two hundred and forty thousand.

—August 24.—The great battle of Liaoyang continued without decisive result.

—August 25.—Great Britain formally asked Russia to explain the action of the Smolensk in stopping British merchantmen.

—August 25.—Floating mines in Port Arthur harbor sank one Russian torpedo-boat destroyer and disabled another.

—August 25.—The Czar ordered that the cruiser Askold and the torpedo-boat destroyer Grosovoi be disarmed and put out of commission.

—August 28.—After fighting desperately for three days the Russians retired from Liandiansian and Anshanchan to Liaoyang....Desperate assaults on Port Arthur continued.

—September 1.—The explosion by electricity of an extensive land mine before Port Arthur killed seven hundred Japanese during an assault.

—September 4.—The battle of Liaoyang ended in the defeat of the Russians, after raging nine days.

—September 4.—Kuropatkin evacuated Liaoyang, after exploding his magazines and burning his stores, and retreated northward.

—September 7.—Kuropatkin's army arrived at Mukden, having left a rearguard at Yentai.

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TEN DAYS

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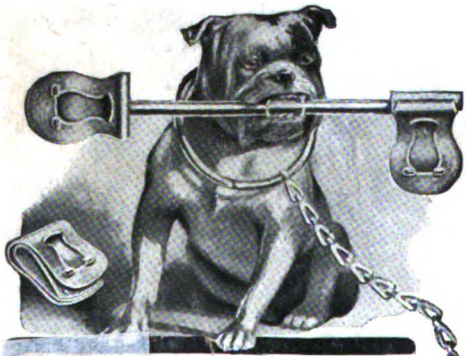

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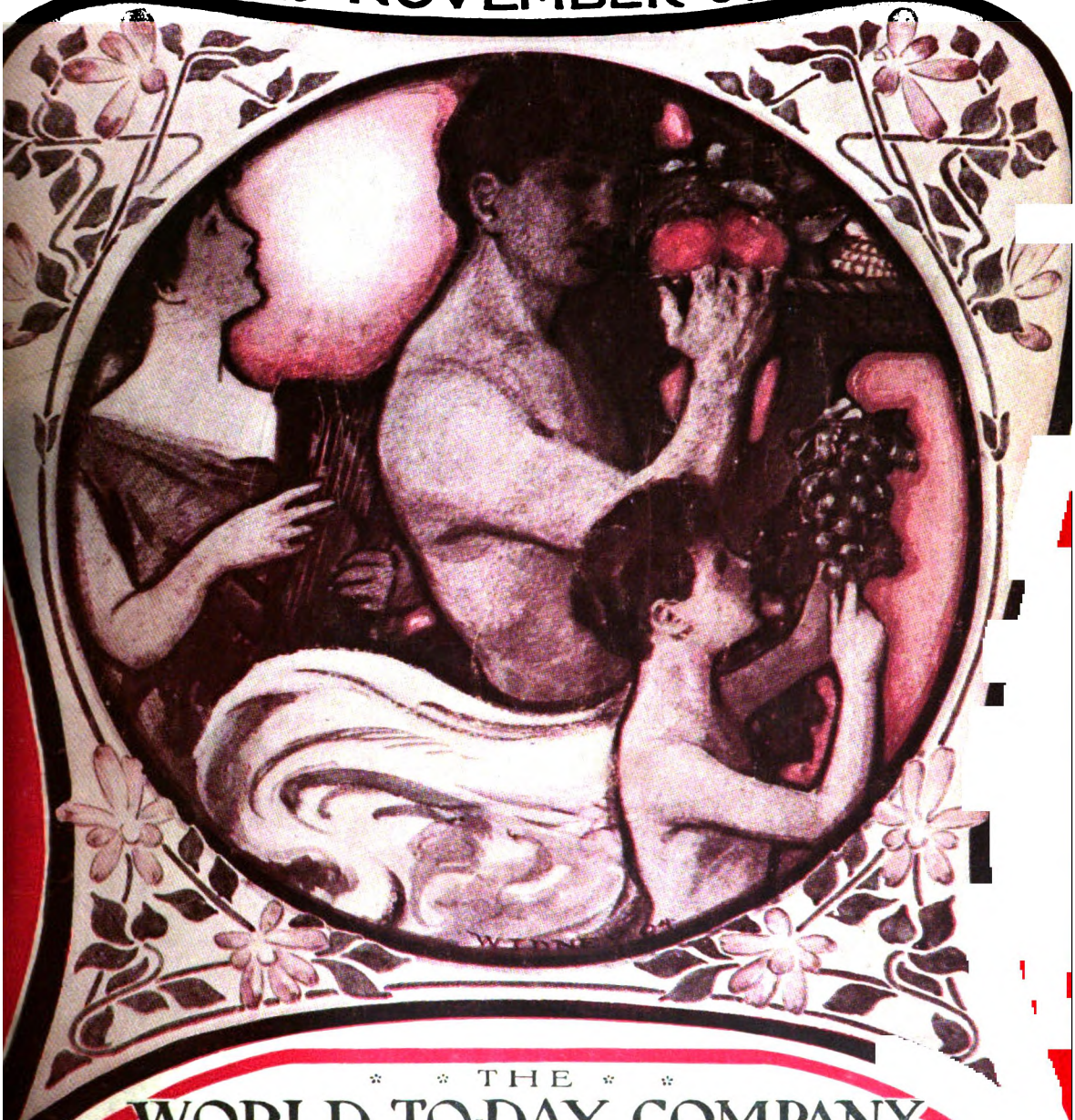

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SENATOR GEORGE F. HOAR

Born August 29, 1826; died September 30, 1904
Represented Massachusetts in the House of Representatives, 1869-1877; in the Senate, 1877-1904
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NOV 3 1904
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The World To-Day

VOLUME VII. NOVEMBER, 1904. NUMBER 5

College Athletics and College Faculties

AMERICAN men and most American women are now possessed of football mania. The game is worthy of their enthusiasm. It is one of the few remaining sports in America that are not exploited by professionals. And, to give it still more distinction, it has become an essential element of our educational system. Indeed, to judge from appearances, one might almost say that education had become an essential element of the football system!

There was a time when there was danger that our colleges would further the advance of culture with the assistance of prize-fighters. Such danger is past. The prize-fighters have chosen an easier lot than football. Then there was a time when boards of athletic control were in an orgy of investigation. Every college saw, or thought it saw, professionals in the teams of its rivals. That time, too, is past. Athletic boards no longer face or investigate the charge of professionalism. Boys in high schools have been taught to sign receipts for expenses rather than for services; or better, to sign no receipts whatsoever. Then, too, there has developed a most extraordinary educational philanthropy. In fact it is almost impossible for a high school boy to escape education—if he can play football. And if this new philanthropy assists only such men as can play football, why complain? Specialization in philanthropy is the order of the day.

* * *

But is the condition of affairs improved? On the contrary, in many ways it is worse. There is no dishonor in being paid for playing a game of ball. It is lying about one's professionalism that disgraces a boy. That which confronts us to-day is worse than open professionalism. It is education in trickery and the lowering of academic standards to win an intercollegiate championship. From this point of view college athletics is something more than an academic question. It concerns the morals of the future leaders of a nation.

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A careful investigation of the records and reports of a number of the leading universities shows that athletics at present are injuring the morale of our educational system in at least six ways:

1. College teams are no longer genuine representatives of a student body, but are aggregations of athletes brought together by means which are too often questionable, but which, under present conditions, it is possible to employ.

2. Entrance requirements are so manipulated as, except in extreme cases, to present small difficulties in the matriculation of desirable athletes. There is an increasing tendency for football players to become members of those schools of a university in which the entrance requirements are least severe.

3. Students are permitted to play on athletic teams while they are conditioned in study or are doing unsatisfactory work in classes.

4. A large proportion of members of football teams are members of an institution for only a short time, often for the one season in which they play.

5. The moral tone of an entire university is threatened when a group of men who are indifferent to study are honored by the student body, or are supported through the assignment of sinecures. Such a state of affairs puts a premium upon that hypocrisy and that conscienceless devotion to success which are the two greatest enemies of the moral life of our educated classes.

6. As athletics is now organized it is all but impossible for a university faculty to remove or prevent these evils. The football management in large universities has at its disposal enormous sums of money over which it has an autocratic control tempered only by the perfunctory work of auditors.

* * *

All legislation in college athletics seeks to equalize the conditions of contest. The efforts made to establish this equality by emphasizing the distinction between the professional and the amateur have accomplished many good results, but fundamentally are along wrong lines. What is needed is legislation that will pay less attention to professionalism and more to the academic standing of contestants. In other words, instead of trying to prevent a man from being a professional, faculties should insist that he be a student.

* * *

It is impossible to reach ideal conditions, but there are three simple rules which will end many of the existing evils. These three rules are:

First. All students who take part in intercollegiate contests shall have been in residence at the institution they represent one academic year.

Second. No student shall represent an institution in intercollegiate contests who has entrance or other conditions in scholarship.

Third. No student shall represent an institution in intercollegiate contests who is enrolled in any school the conditions of entrance to which are less than those of the literary department of that institution.

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BARON VON STERNBERG AND COUNT CASSINI

This recent photograph of the German and Russian Ambassadors is said to be the first ever taken of any two ambassadors together. Diplomats are naturally careful as to the inferences which might be drawn from such groups. The present relations of Germany and Russia give particular interest to this photograph

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

The Nation

Progress of the Campaign

As the close of the national political canvass approaches, the extraordinary lack of interest manifested by the voters is clearly revealed as its most striking feature. The nation is content. Business is good. There are no radical issues under discussion. Nobody is alarmed about anything. The opposing candidates are able men of high character who are, as persons of comfortable substance say, safe. Even the attempt of Carl Schurz to convince the public that President Roosevelt is a swashbuckler, who delights in picking international quarrels and who violates the Constitution whenever he finds himself in the mood to do so, has proved abortive. The declaration of the aggressive Democrats that the President himself is the issue has met with a joyous response from his supporters. They recognize that his personal popularity is one of the party's most valuable assets in this dull year. Elaborate arguments, built up laboriously to demonstrate his unfitness for office in a republic, have fallen by their own weight. The people realize that he has been a good President. Judge Parker also has impressed them as a man who is not to be feared. They see no reason for getting excited. But in this placid mood of the voters may lurk a danger for the party which fails to make effective use of its political organization in the so-called doubtful states. If, in the last days of the campaign, the inertia of indifferent thousands shall be overcome by questionable arguments drawn from party treasure chests, it will be demonstrated that a lack of strong convictions upon which to make a searching canvass has its evil side. Americans everywhere must hope that election day will pass without any such manifestation of criminal campaigning.

Prominence of State Issues

It is an axiom of politics that a strong state ticket is a benefit to the national ticket in the particular commonwealth affected by the former. The reverse of this is equally true. Because the languor of the voters has not been overcome by the present situation in national politics or because the state issues this year are especially interesting, or perhaps for both these reasons, unusual importance attaches to various contests for the governorship. Singularly enough, these contests mainly seem to favor the Democratic party. We may pass over the unpleasant spectacle in Missouri, where partisanship is causing many honest Republicans to attempt to defeat Joseph W. Folk, the Democratic candidate, whose magnificent fight against official corruption entitles him to the support of all advocates of pure government. The defeat of this courageous young man would be a shocking piece of blind ingratitude on the part of the voters. In Wisconsin there is war between the so-called "stalwarts," led by Senators Spooner and Quarles, Congressman Babcock and others, and the "half-breeds," who support Governor La Follette. In Colorado, Alva Adams, who served the state acceptably as governor for two terms some years ago, has been nominated for that office by the Democrats, in opposition to Governor Peabody, the Republican candidate. The recent acts of lawlessness by miners, mine operators, militiamen and state officials form the important issue, with the Socialists and women's votes the unknown quantity. Delaware, which is normally a Democratic state, has its old quarrel between the Addicks Republicans and those members of the party who resent the scandalous political methods of Addicks. In Rhode Island, Dr. Garvin, the Democratic

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HENRY C. PAYNE

The late Postmaster-General, who died at Washington, October 4. Mr. Payne was a Massachusetts man who removed to Milwaukee in 1863 and had been a leader in Wisconsin politics for thirty years. His administration of the postoffice department was marked by the investigation of charges of incompetency against several of his subordinates. He would have resigned because of ill health had it not been for this inquiry.

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SENATOR JOHN C. SPOONER

The reply of Senator Spooner to Lincoln Steffens' attack on him in an article on Wisconsin politics has been one of the political sensations of the month

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governor, is again leading the popular revolt against ring rule resulting from the state's antiquated constitution. New Jersey has an important question of railway taxation which deeply affects the principal cities of the state. The chief advocate of tax reform is Mr. Black, the Democratic candidate for governor. A somewhat similar contest in Michigan may result in the election of Mr. Ferris, the candidate for governor on the Democratic ticket, though the state is certain to cast its electoral vote for Roosevelt.

Conditions in New York

Interest, however, attaches mainly to the situation in the State of New York. It is conceded that the Democrats must carry that state if they are to win, since from no other source can they get the necessary number of electoral votes. The Republicans can lose New York and still win. The vote in the great commonwealth is subject to enormous fluctuations. Since both the candidates for President are New Yorkers, the element of local pride is eliminated. Lieutenant-Governor Higgins, the Republican candidate for governor, and Judge D. Cady Herrick, the Democratic candidate, seem fairly satisfactory to their respective parties. The former is criticized as the tool of Governor Odell, who brought about his nomination and whose administration of state affairs is savagely denounced in the Democratic platform. Judge Herrick, late of the Supreme Court of the state, is supposed to have been the personal choice of Judge Parker. Republicans attack him as political boss who carried his partisanship upon the bench.

"YOU MAY FIRE WHEN READY"—IF EVER READY

"YOU MAY FIRE WHEN READY" IF EVER READY
New York *Herald*

"WHERE DO I COME IN?"

"WHERE DO I COME IN?"
New York *Herald*

The dissatisfaction of Republican farmers with the enormous indebtedness to be placed upon the state for the reconstruction of the Erie canal, which they think will bring them no profit, may have a harmful effect upon the Republican state ticket, since Governor Odell is held in part responsible for the canal legislation. Because the Democrats must have the state or lose the national election, they are working for it in desperate earnest. Most of the leading newspapers of New York — the *Herald*, the *World*, the *Times*, the *Evening Post*, the Brooklyn *Eagle* and others — support the Democratic national ticket. The *Tribune*, the *Sun*, the *Press* and the *Globe* support the Republican ticket, having the assistance of the *Times* and the *Evening Post* so far as the state ticket is concerned. It may be said that the serious work of the political committees centers in New York State, though Chairman Taggart of the Democratic National Committee is doing his best to capture Indiana, and Senator Gorman and Mr. Davis, Judge Parker's venerable fellow candidate, are devoting their attention to West Virginia, Maryland and Delaware.

One Very Active Candidate

In his young manhood, Judge Parker learned the value of careful organization in the school of Samuel J. Tilden. Afterward, as political manager for David B. Hill, he employed those methods in New York with success. His present

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ELMER DOVER
Secretary of the National Republican Committee

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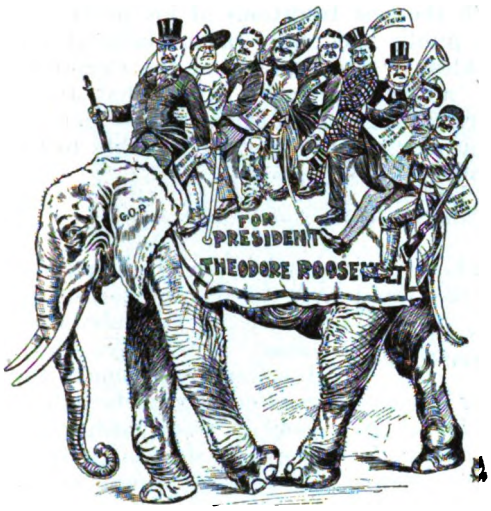

"WHATEVER THOU ART, BE ALL THERE"
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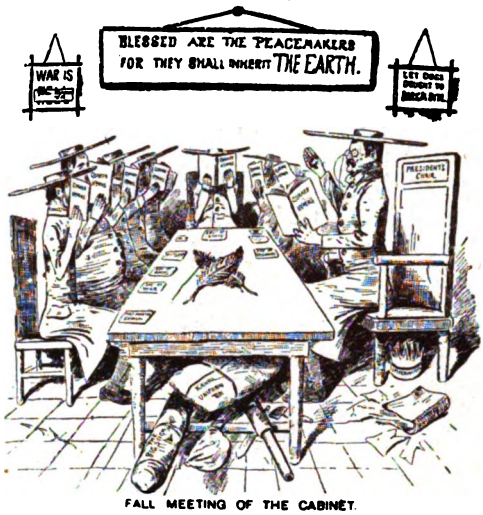

FALL MEETING OF THE CABINET
New York *World*

course has led him in the same direction. He has personally reviewed the methods of the political committees, has revised those methods and improved upon them. Active participation in the work of the party's national headquarters has proved his practical knowledge of campaigning. As a speaker, he has not attempted to emulate the remarkable achievements of Mr. Bryan, restricting himself to occasional addresses delivered to delegations that called upon him. Candidate Davis has done even less in the way of speechmaking. President Roosevelt has stayed at home and sent out his cabinet officers to talk for him. Senator Knox, his former attorney-general, and Mr. Root, his former secretary of war, also have done effective campaigning as representatives of the President. The one candidate who has gone about the country to give the people his views at firsthand is Senator Fairbanks. From Maine to Oregon he has lifted up his voice in the cause of the Republican party. He has traveled between the oceans and expounded party doctrines from car platforms, with a persistence which speaks well for his enthusiasm. It seems almost a pity to require this excellent man to work so hard during a campaign when few persons are making special efforts to arouse the voters. However, the generous local statesmen who introduce him to the audiences have been recommending him widely as the proper candidate of his party for President four years hence. His reward may, therefore, be ample, in time.

Roosevelt and Parker Contrasted

For three years, President Roosevelt has been the nation's chief executive. He enjoyed wide popularity before he succeeded to the vacant chair of the dead McKinley. At that trying time, his conduct was absolutely beyond criticism. In dealing with the trust question, with Cuban reciprocity, with the anthracite coal strike, with the Venezuela affair, with the Panama republic and with other important matters, he has been at once successful and in accord with popular sentiment. Setting aside the questions of right or wrong, constitutionality or unconstitutionality, one may say unhesitatingly that the public has approved these acts of the President. His stand on the race issue has injured his popularity very greatly in the South, but as a Presidential candidate he would have had little or nothing to expect from that quarter in any event. A man of action, a man of ideas, the youngest of all the Presidents, he appeals to young men particularly. These strong qualities are shown to advantage in the letter of acceptance which he has contributed to the literature of the campaign. It is a challenge to the opposition to suggest improvements in the methods of the

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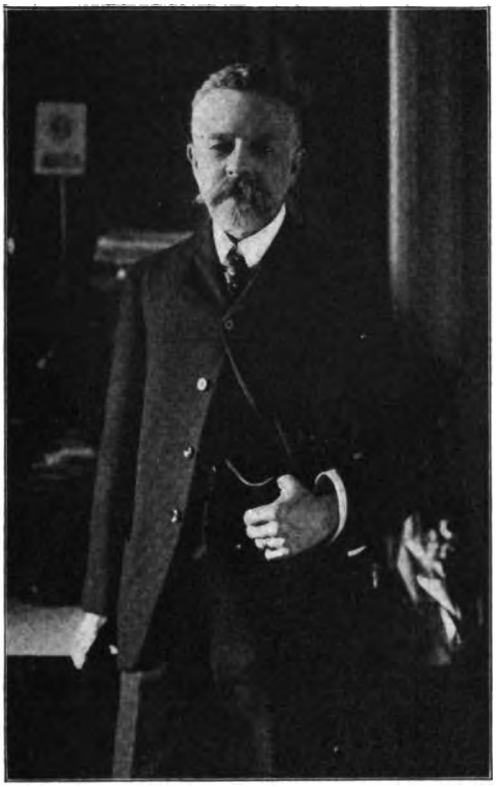

SENATOR HENRY C. LODGE

Republican Senator from Massachusetts, an intimate friend of the President
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administration which have been criticized in the interests of the rival candidate. It is an arraignment of the opposition's policy as at once ineffective and insincere. It charges that corporation interests are appealed to in secret by his opponents. While they dare not openly criticize either the settlement of the coal strike or the Northern Securities merger suit, he says, they do so "furtively and through special agents." Judge Parker, who has seemed to lack opportunities to make himself thoroughly well known to the masses of the voters, has maintained throughout the attitude of one who defends the Constitution from aggressions by the nation's chief executive. He sees peril to the republic in the weakening of the legislative and judicial branches of the government by the continual growth of the power of the President. He urges economy in national expenditures and retrenchment in departments now lavishly supplied with funds. His attitude in these respects is in keeping with the best traditions of his party. If the public had really taken alarm at any reckless or prodigal act of the President, one might confidently expect that Judge Parker's serious words and his general demeanor would appeal irresistibly to the people.

One Issue of Real Vitality

That the issue of imperialism has not stirred the people to revolt against the existing administration seems reasonably clear. However, from some of the New England states come reports indicating that the issue of trade reciprocity with Canada has made a deep impression there. Recent addresses by Senator Lodge and some expressions by President Roosevelt show that the Republicans realize how the wind is shifting. After years of studied neglect of trade reciprocity, except in the single instance of the Cuban treaty, which was based on other than trade considerations, the President and some of his close advisers are protesting their friendship for this method of expanding American markets. Judge Parker's letter of acceptance makes effective use of the record of opposition which the Senate has made in the matter of reciprocity treaties that have long awaited its pleasure. In Massachusetts, Connecticut and Rhode Island no other issue is deemed so important by a large number of voters as is this one. If the Republicans shall fail to convince these voters that they are in earnest in saying that they favor this policy, they may lose the electoral votes of Connecticut and Rhode Island. Indeed, the feature of the present campaign which is likely to have the most influence upon national affairs is the trade reciprocity sentiment now developing in the lower New England states. One may venture to predict that if President Roosevelt shall be commissioned by the people to retain his present office for another term, he will find it desirable both by way of fulfilling his campaign pledges and of maintaining his party in power to urge upon the Senate the ratification of various long neglected reciprocity treaties. More important still, he is likely to find it desirable to negotiate, if possible, a trade reciprocity treaty with the Canadian government.

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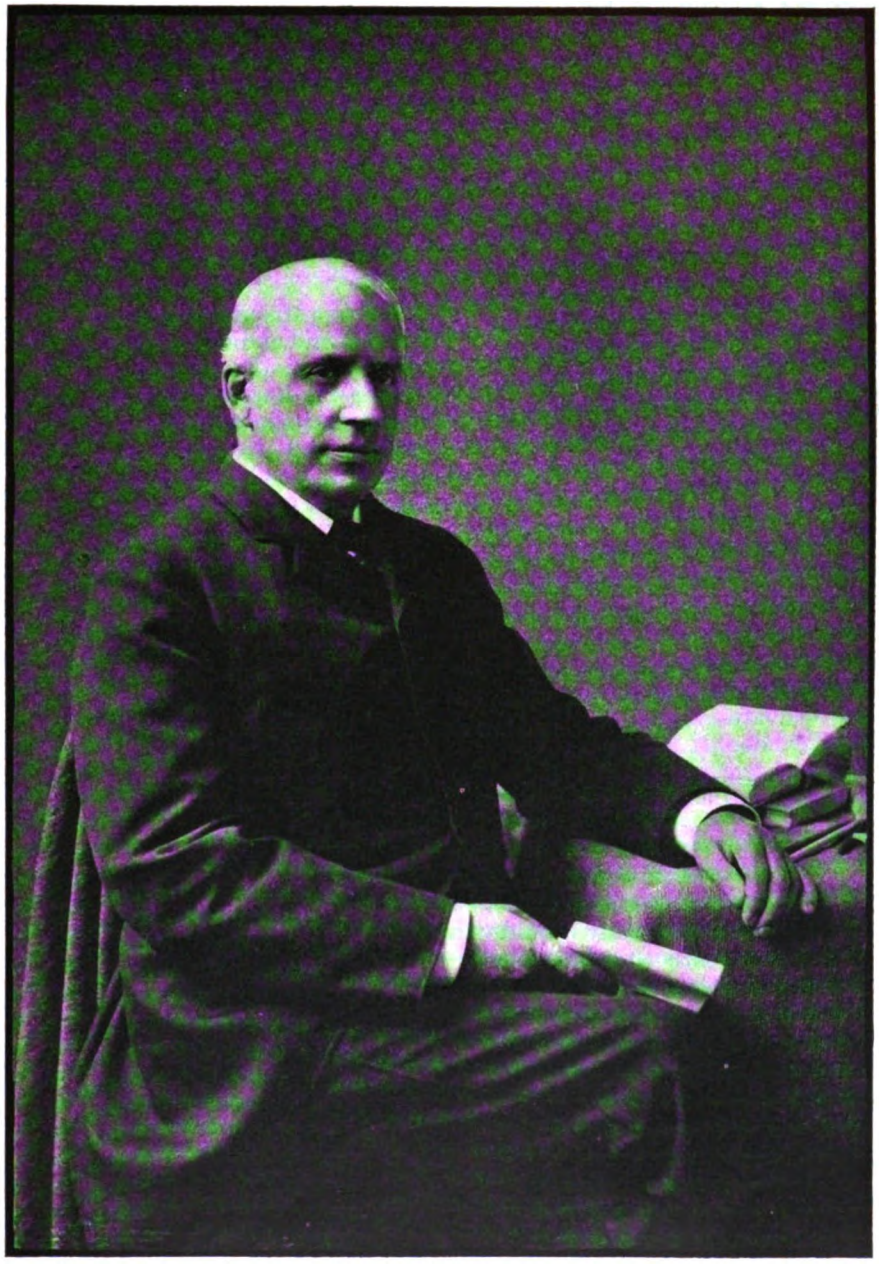

SENATOR ARTHUR P. GORMAN

The Maryland Senator is Sheehan's right-hand man in the Democratic campaign in the East, Chairman Taggart's activity being confined largely to the Middle West

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NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN DEMOCRATIC EDITORS AND DAVIS'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE

St. Paul *Pioneer-Press*

Control of the House

One of the most active campaign orators is Speaker Cannon, who is devoting his attention to the voters in doubtful Congressional districts. He has reason to wish his speeches there to make votes for his party. The present majority of the Republicans in the House is so small that a net loss of fifteen seats would give control of it to the Democrats. Even though the national ticket of the party should win by a considerable majority in the electoral college, the Republicans might lose control of the House. Local influences in various states, tending to give peculiar strength to the Democratic state tickets, endanger the success of some Republican candidates for Congress. In Wisconsin, for example, where some of the Congressmen have joined aggressively in the fight on Governor La Follette, there may be some losses. It is conceded that the Senate will be Republican during the next four years, so that a Democratic administration would not be in full control of legislative affairs. If President Roosevelt should be elected, one may suppose that a Republican House would be of more value to the country than a Democratic House, since it would give the party in power no excuse for inaction on important matters of legislation. In spite of the various arguments which may be made for division of party responsibility in matters of government, the fact remains that divided responsibility has been the reverse of beneficial in the past.

Where are the Radicals?

The state elections in Maine and Vermont were held in September. The vote of these states is commonly given great prominence in a Presidential year, all partisans striving to forecast a victory for their own candidates in the national election from the results there recorded. While the Republicans carried both states by majorities so large that they were held to forecast November victories for the party in doubtful states, the Democrats also made a fair showing of strength. Apparently the quiet campaigning which leaves business undisturbed and is almost wholly lacking in "hurrah" methods is still capable of getting out the votes. It is too much to hope, however, that the good effects of a national canvass shorn of radical issues will lead to others of the same pattern. The radicals have no intention of being permanently crowded into the background. If they fail to vote for the two leading candidates, they still have minor candidates upon whom to bestow their patronage. The Socialists in particular hope to make a striking demonstration of numbers this year. Where the followers of Mr. Bryan will go is still a mystery. That influential leader has almost effaced himself from the present campaign. The support which he has bestowed upon the candidate of his party is almost colorless. Mr. Hearst, who was a candidate for the nomination for President in the St. Louis convention, seems rather to be supporting Mr. Watson than Judge Parker. If, in spite of the lukewarmness of their leaders, all the radical Democrats cast their ballots for the party's candidate, they will give an impressive demonstration of the strength of party ties. Mr. Bryan having already announced that he will endeavor to bring about the reorganization of the party after the election, one must conclude that the silence of himself and his friends at the

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present time will be followed by a period of argument after November 8, in case the Democratic ticket is defeated. At this stage of the campaign the contest has centered upon the Atlantic seaboard, where the eastern Democrats seek not only to win the national election, but to maintain their supremacy against the radicals in their own party.

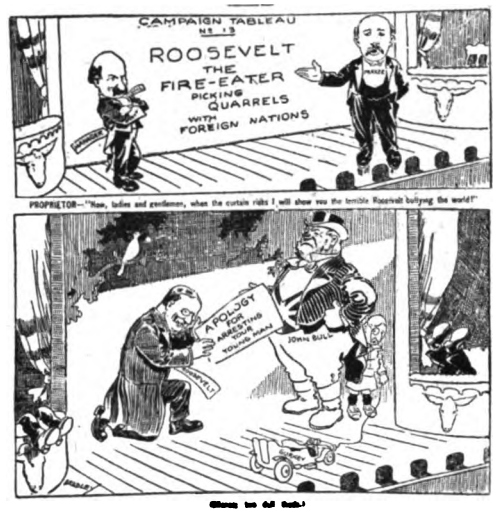
LaFollette Victorious

The factional contest between the two branches of the Republican party in Wisconsin has attracted the attention of the entire country during the month. On the one side are the Senators and federal officeholders and members of the regular Republican organization throughout the state. On the other is Governor LaFollette, a man whose significance in American politics is very differently regarded by his friends and his enemies. Those who hold that Wisconsin has been a center of political corruption and corporation control believe Mr. LaFollette's fight against the machine to be that of a true reformer. After weeks of suspense the Supreme Court of the state on October 5 decided in the governor's favor the contest as to the right to print the official ballots for the November election. The national leaders of the party have displayed not a little anxiety lest the fight in Wisconsin should lose the state, and have done their best to convince the citizens of both factions that they must get together on national issues at least until election day. As the matter now stands the LaFollette ballots will contain the names of the Roosevelt and Fairbanks electors and the "stalwart" ticket can not use the name Republican. The charges made by Mr. Lincoln Steffens in *McClure's Magazine* as to the control of the state by corporations, and the use of money in the election of United States Senators, have been indignantly denied in a public statement issued by Senator Spooner.

Senator Hoar

Senator George F. Hoar, who died at his home in Worcester, Massachusetts, September 30, was the last survivor of the older generation of scholarly leaders in the Senate. He was descended

SHOWS THAT WENT WRONG



SHOWS THAT WENT WRONG
Chicago *Daily News*

from an old colonial family, born in Concord, educated at Harvard, and was in every way a typical Massachusetts man of the old school. He had been in politics for more than half a century, and in Congress for thirty-five years. He had held many important positions on the Senate committees, and until 1898 enjoyed the fullest confidence of his party as one of its leaders on the floor of the Senate. From motives which every fair-minded American must respect, Senator Hoar opposed the entire policy of his party with regard to the Philippine Islands. What it cost him to do this can be more readily understood when it is remembered that he was a strong party man and felt keenly the limitations of his usefulness which his position on this question forced upon him. He fought the Philippine policy with all his resources of eloquence, learning and parliamentary skill, never ceasing to regret that the majority of the nation had entered irrevocably upon a course which he believed to be contrary to its true principles and best interests. There was something pathetic as well as inspiring in his last great speech in the Senate, delivered in 1902, when he called to witness the fathers of the republic one by one to declare their allegiance to the early principles of liberty and self-government which he contrasted with the Republican policy in the

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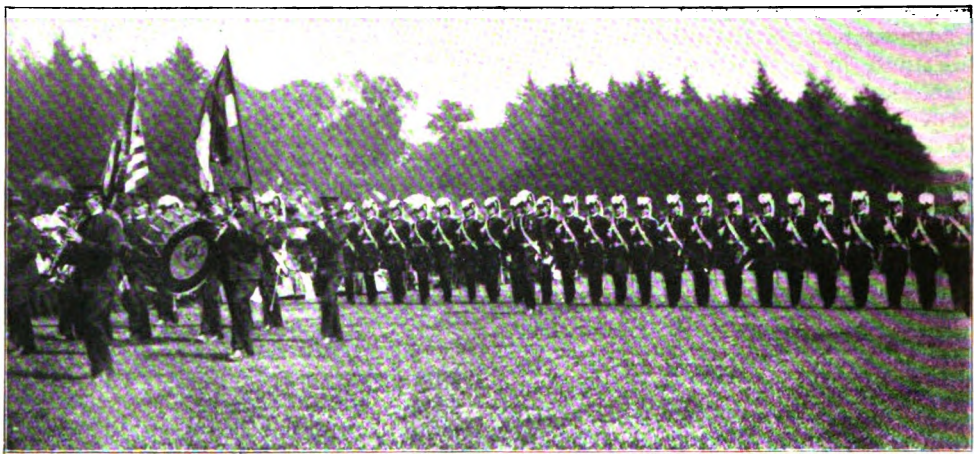
THE EARL OF EUSTON AND REUBEN H. LLOYD, GRAND MASTERS OF ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES



THE PRIZE DRILL AT THE CONCLAVE

THE ILLUMINATION OF MARKET STREET

THE CONCLAVE OF THE KNIGHTS TEMPLAR, SAN FRANCISCO

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THE NEW BUILDING OF THE CHICAGO ORCHESTRA

Philippines. Even those who believed him to be totally wrong in his judgment felt that they were listening to the voice of the great past, speaking through the personality of a statesman who represented all that was most honorable and unselfish in our political history. Amid his public duties Senator Hoar found time to be a close student of literature and history, collecting a remarkable private library, and enjoying the friendship of many men of letters and science.

The Chicago Orchestra

The Chicago Orchestra begins its season with every prospect of the most successful series of concerts in its history. The great popular movement for the endowment of the orchestra, while not successful in securing the full sum originally expected, has placed the organization on a firm and permanent basis. A beautiful music hall, designed by Mr. D. H. Burnham, is now being erected on Michigan Avenue, and will be ready for use before the end of the year. This will be the home of the orchestra, and the income derived from rentals will serve as a partial endowment to cover the inevitable annual deficit which any high-class musical organization must expect to meet. Mr. Theodore Thomas returns to his work with this burden of anxiety lifted from his shoulders, and freer than ever to give full scope to his unrivaled powers as a conductor and program maker. The people of Chicago never learned fully to appreciate their orchestra until there seemed to be some danger of losing it. Henceforth they will feel a sense of ownership which will be mutually beneficial.

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World Politics

The Russo-Japanese War: The Armies

Nothing of decisive character occurred for several days after the great battle at Liaoyang and Kuropatkin's well-managed retreat to Mukden. The Japanese victory was somewhat shorn of its glory by the fact that the Russian general succeeded in accomplishing a retreat in such good order as he did. It is understood that Liaoyang has been strongly fortified by the Japanese with a view probably to its serving as winter quarters for some of their forces, or at least as a base of supplies. There has been a continual and steady advance toward Mukden by the Japanese. Marquis Oyama has three armies concentrated to the north, east and west of that city, while a fourth is engaged in sending out flanking columns. Reinforcements have been received by both the Russians and the Japanese. The former appear to be keeping on the defensive, awaiting a decisive attack by the Japanese. The latter are apparently planning to surround General Kuropatkin's forces, but much mystery has enveloped their movements, so that he has evidently been kept in a state of suspense, not knowing where to locate all of the Japanese troops. It has been officially reported that General Kuroki had crossed the Hun River, about thirty miles east of Mukden, and was on the march to Tieling. It is possible that there may be a battle at Tie Pass, where the Russians are said to be making a stand. There have been numerous skirmishes with varying success to both armies. The capture of Da Pass, after one or more previous attempts which had been repulsed, was accomplished by the Japanese on September 29. The Russians have taken possession of Fankiatum, Shishintz and Ilu, all to the southwest of Mukden, and have there constructed defenses by the aid of Chinese coolies. The proclamation by the Japanese of a protectorate over Kamchatka was another September event. The completion of the railway to Liaoyang on October 1 solves the problem of the transportation of supplies for the Japanese armies. It is estimated that Japan has from one hundred and forty-four thousand to two hundred thousand men along the Hun River confronting General Kuropatkin.

Reinforcements for Both Armies

With public acknowledgment of Japanese bravery and high warlike qualities, the Czar issued, on September 25, an imperial ukase announcing the formation of a second army by a division of the active forces in Manchuria and the mobilization of additional troops. The command of this army is given to General Grippenberg, who has won distinction in previous campaigns. He will have equal authority with General Kuropatkin. It is expected that Grand Duke Nicholas Michaelovitch, inspector-general of cavalry, will be made commander-in-chief in place of Viceroy Alexieff. Fresh troops from Europe have already reached the scene of war, and are manning the Russian outposts south of Mukden. The Japanese have placed another army in the field, of nearly one hundred thousand men, and a fifth army of equal size is being formed in Japan. An emergency amendment to the army conscription law has extended the service of the second reservists from five to ten years. There has been so great a drain on the Japanese forces that only about forty thousand trained troops are said to be now left in Japan. The losses from a disease called *beri-beri* are also reducing the Japanese forces in the field. At the same time, Japan has a very large and singularly patriotic population, and is hardly likely to lack for troops.

The Siege of Port Arthur

The Japanese have redoubled their efforts to capture Port Arthur, a furious general assault being made on three sides simultaneously. The squadrons under Admiral Togo and Vice-Admiral Kamimura aided in the attack. The Russians made a sortie on September 18, attempting to retake the Etseshan fort recently captured by the Japanese, but were repulsed with heavy loss. On September 20 the latter obtained possessio of two important forts on either side Sueiszeying, north of Port Arthur. C September 22, after four days' sever fighting, the Japanese took High Hill, position of importance to the Russians; on a call from General Stoessel for volunteers, the Russians regained possession of

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THE JAPANESE GENERAL ASAKA READING HIS ADDRESS TO THE DEAD
Photographed by John F. Bass for the Chicago *Daily News*

it. Fort Kuropatkin, which was constructed for the protection of the garrison's water supply, was captured by the Japanese on September 25. At this date the assault had resulted in the winning of three important Russian positions and six small forts lying between Shushiyen and Rihlung Mountain. General Stoessel is heroically defending the besieged city. He is ever on the alert, night and day, and absolutely refused the Japanese demand for surrender. There is much suffering from shortage of food and water, but there are fortunately no contagious diseases. Many deaths have occurred from poisoning by the bites of large flies which feed on the putrefying corpses outside. On September 29 it was reported that the Japanese held all the principal fortifications around Port Arthur, except those on Golden Hill, Kikwanshan and Liautishan. The water condensing apparatus on Golden Hill was wrecked by shell fire and the Japanese hold the reservoir. General Stoessel gives high praise to the garrison for their fortitude and bravery. The siege bids fair to become one of the most desperate and prolonged in modern history.

The Navy

The naval squadrons of the Japanese have been coöperating in the siege of Port Arthur, but no specific actions have been reported, except the destruction of three Japanese torpedo boats and damage to one cruiser by contact with Russian mines. Two Russian destroyers returned to Vladivostok on September 23, having captured a Japanese transport and a sailing ship. The cruisers Rossia and Gromoboi, three torpedo boats and three destroyers have sailed for Gensan for another raid on the eastern coast of Korea. It is reported that the Russian Black Sea fleet has sailed from Sevastopol, but its destination is not yet known. The Russian government has contracted for eleven torpedo-boat destroyers to be built in French shipyards. The Russian Baltic fleet, about whose movements there has been so much conjecture, started from Kronstadt on September 11. A few hours later it received orders to put into Reval. This action appears to indicate that its presence in the Orient is not so important as has been believed. It has been announced that the Russian navy is to be reorganized with Vice-Admiral Doubasoff

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HELENA, QUEEN OF ITALY
Mother of the Crown Prince Humbert

as Minister of Marine, Rear-Admiral Chouknin taking charge of the Pacific squadron, Admiral Birileff, the Black Sea fleet, and Veselago that of the Baltic ports. It is reported that the Japanese government has decided to place contracts immediately for the building of twenty warships to be completed as soon as possible. Some of them will be built in the Union Iron Works in San Francisco, and others abroad.

In Korea

Japan has inaugurated a practical protectorate over Korea. Mr. Megata, of the Tokyo Department of Finance, has been made virtual comptroller of the Korean finance department, and Mr. D. W. Stevens, long connected with the Japanese legation in Washington, has been appointed permanent adviser to the Korean foreign office. During September large numbers of Japanese troops arrived at Chemulpo and have been sent north. The Russians are sending reinforcements south from Kapsan. An active winter campaign is expected in northeastern Korea.

Italy's Heir

Joy and misery have kept company in the Italian Kingdom during the past month. Great rejoicing greeted the birth of an heir to the throne on September 15. He was given the name of Humbert and the title of the Prince of Piedmont. In honor of his arrival, the King gave $200,000 to a workingmen's old age fund, granted amnesty to deserters and shortened the terms of imprisonment of many convicts. Coincident with these occasions for rejoicing was the inauguration by the Socialists of a general strike as a protest against government severity in dealing with labor disturbances. Train service was interfered with in many places and it was found necessary to call out the troops in several large cities in order to restore order. The strike has practically failed. The great hindrance to a united Italy is the antagonism existing between the northern and southern portions of the kingdom. The Italians of the North have had too little sympathy for their poverty-stricken neighbors in

E. D. MOREL
Delegate from Great Britain to the Peace Congress at Boston, bearing a memorial to the President regarding the Congo situation. Author of "Affairs of West Africa," "The British Case in French Congo," and "King Leopold's Rule in Africa"

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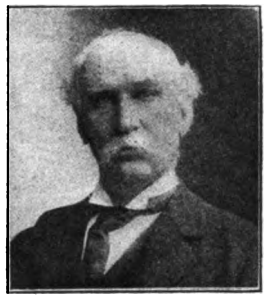
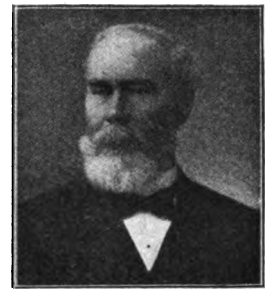
the South, viewing them only as a drag upon the commercial prosperity of the country, while the southern peoples feel that the advantages of the union have so far all been on the side of those in the North, who have profited by the good government which has been theirs for a much longer period. The aim of the present government is undoubtedly the relief of the economic distress in the South and better days may therefore be expected.

Close of the Tibetan Mission

The British expedition to Tibet started from Lhasa on its return journey on September 23. The treaty signed at Potala, the central seat of Lamaism, proves the success of the mission undertaken by Colonel Younghusband. It confirms the agreement of 1890 made with the British government, provides for the opening of trade with India, the demolition of forts that have interfered with trade an the payment of $2,400,000 within three years, British troops to occupy Chumbi Pass during the interim. No Tibetan territory is to be sold, leased or mortgaged without the consent of the British government. Political relations with any other country than Great Britain are forbidden, except, of course, those with China, which has suzerain power in Tibet. It is generally recognized that by this treaty the British have safeguarded against Russian influence and Chinese invasion. Negotiations with the Chinese government at Peking, in regard to the provisions of the treaty, are being carried on and a special envoy was despatched from China to Tibet to investigate matters. Russia has made official protest against the treaty, claiming that Great Britain has broken faith in thus virtually creating a protectorate over Tibet. Colonel Younghusband, in an address at the time of the signing of the treaty, emphasized the fact that the religion of the Tibetans was not to be affected, that no annexation of territory had been made, nor any interference with internal affairs attempted. The continued suzerainty of China was also fully recognized. A strong impression of the strength and importance of Great Britain has undoubtedly been made upon the Hermit nation and incidentally upon the many millions of Buddhists. The closed door of Tibet is now ancient history.



PRESIDENT R. T. PAINE
International Peace Congress



SECRETARY B. F. TRUEBLOOD
International Peace Congress

Peace Conferences

Two conventions in the interest of international peace have recently been held. The Interparliamentary Union, which met at St. Louis in September, has for its object the promotion of international arbitration, and urges the negotiation of further arbitration treaties and the establishment of an international parliament for the promotion of peace among nations. In response to a suggestion of this union, President Roosevelt has announced that he will at an early date invite the leading powers to join in a second conference at The Hague in the interest of international peace. The importance of this step can hardly be overestimated. It is regarded as likely that the holding of such a conference will be postponed until the close of the Russo-Japanese War. There remains much to be done to complete the work begun at the first Hague conference. Notwithstanding all the ridicule that has been heaped upon the leaders in that movement, and the apparent return to the warlike methods of the past, the movement begun at The Hague has already produced substantial results, and its influence will never be forgotten. Following the meeting of the Interparliamentary Union came the thirteenth convention of the International Peace Congress at Boston, October 3. The congress was opened by Mr. Edwin D. Mead, of Boston, one of the leading American workers in the movement against war. Mr. Robert Treat Paine,

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president of the American Peace Society, was elected president of the congress, and Dr. Benjamin F. Trueblood chosen secretary. At the meetings of the congress arguments against the wastefulness of war were advanced by many speakers, and various methods of bringing to a close the era of great standing armies were considered. The meeting was particularly interesting on account of the presence of many distinguished delegates from abroad, representing the peace sentiment of the nations of Europe before whom the subject of disarmament or reduction of armament is even a more vital one than for us.

The World of Sport

Football Prospects in the East

The football season is as yet too young to disclose the merits of the various teams, but such early games as have been played seem to indicate that the standing of the leading universities will not differ greatly this year from that of 1903. In the East the Harvard management is displaying rather more than accustomed activity, and is breaking certain not very important precedents in its treatment of promising freshmen. Columbia is coquetting with Michigan while discovering its probable strength. Yale interests are struggling with their accustomed hard luck, if one is to believe Yale stories. Princeton and Pennsylvania, at the time of writing, have played no games that indicate clearly their prospective strength.

In the West

Similarly in the West the early games show no great deterioration or development in the various teams. Possibly an exception ought to be made in the case of Chicago, whose squad of candidates, though much smaller than those of several other universities, contains some exceptionally good material, but for the line and especially for the back North-

TROPHIES OF THE CLASS RUSH AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

Hazing is disappearing at all the larger colleges, but the annual "rush" between sophomores and freshmen still persists in many otherwise civilized institutions. The piles of freshmen garments torn off by the victorious sophomores show how spirited a contest was witnessed in Philadelphia this year

Photographed by Pierce and Jones

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western has apparently not lost all the enthusiasm inspired by McCornack last year, while Wisconsin and Minnesota have already begun to show both weight and speed. Michigan as well as Minnesota has a number of seasoned players, and bids fair to develop the extraordinary speed that was so effective in 1903. Taken altogether, unless all signs fail, we shall see better football in 1904 than ever before.

Signs of a Better Day

Several matters, small in themselves, show that at last our universities are waking to the scandalous possibilities that lay before athletics a year ago. There have been a number of instances in which attempts to register students not yet graduates of high schools have been foiled by the vigilance of faculties. Wisconsin is especially to be congratulated upon its refusal to wink at irregularities of this class that athletic managers and coaches are too ready to attempt. Nor has there been a recrudescence of that mutual incrimination that disgraced the opening of the season of 1903. Mr. Yost has, it is true, thought it necessary to defend the reputation of Michigan, but his letter was as free from countercharges as it was unconvincing as a defense. It would be interesting to know just what sort of statement Swarthmore would make if it felt it necessary to rehabilitate its reputation.

The Religious World

The Continental Sunday

There appears to be somewhat of a rebound of feeling in regard to the increasing license of observance of Sunday as a day of rest. The value of a weekly day of freedom from labor is coming to be more fully appreciated. The Swiss government has recently presented a Sunday rest law to be voted on at a later date by the Swiss electors. The *Gazette de Madrid* has just published a royal decree approving the resolution drawn up by the commission on social reforms, for the application of the "repose of the Sabbath" law which was passed in March last. Article I of this law prohibits all Sunday work, with certain exceptions, and the prohibition includes the publication and sale of newspapers. The duration of the Sunday is fixed from midnight of Saturday to the next midnight. The fines to be enforced vary from one to twenty-five *pesos* for individual offenses against the law, but are largely increased in cases of the employment of a large number of people in a body, so that proprietors of manufacturing establishments could not possibly afford to incur such expense. The exceptions to the law are quite numerous, including rail and water transportation, street cars, gas and electric light plants, domestic service, hotels, restaurants, tobacco shops, pawn shops and all places in which food is sold. All places of amusement, except the bull ring, are also permitted to continue open. The workingmen are largely in favor of the law, but the majority of the Spaniards, as might be expected, are opposed to it. It is therefore doubtful whether it be literally enforced. Sentiment in France, particularly among the Socialists, is also tending toward a Sunday rest law. Two years ago, by a vote of 432 to 422, a bill was passed by the House of Deputies limiting labor in mines, factories, shops and transport trades to six full days in a week. Since that date, the desire for its enforcement has greatly grown, and it is probable that the approval of the Senate, as well as that of the House, can be obtained to that end. It is, of course, a sociologic rather than a religious reason which governs this new movement, but it is a decided gain for mankind and will afford better opportunity for the prosecution of Christian work among the masses.

Episcopal Convention

The Episcopal General Convention, which met at Boston in October, was rendered memorable by the presence of the Archbishop of Canterbury, the ecclesiastical head of the Church of England. The archbishop was received with the most cordial expressions of international fellowship, and was lavishly entertained by his hosts. Previous to the meeting of the convention he had attended

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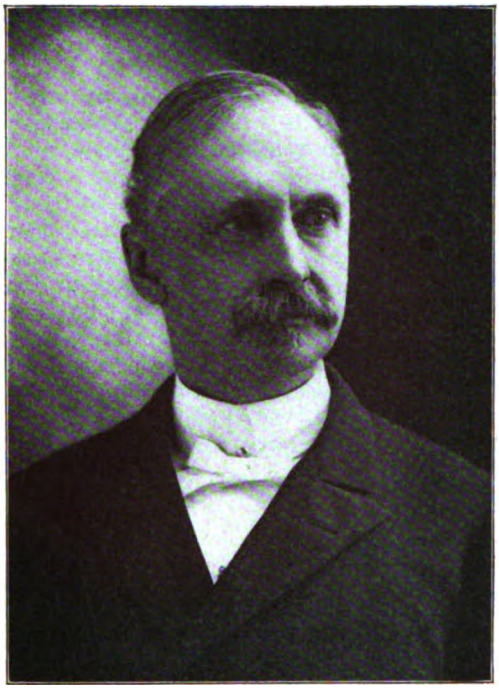

SAMUEL IVES CURTISS
Professor of Hebrew in Chicago Theological Seminary

the annual meeting of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew in Philadelphia, where he expressed his pleasure at the vigor and activity of this men's organization with its many helpful ministries and wholesome influence. At the opening sessions of the Boston convention there was a spirited contest for the presidency of the house of deputies, resulting in the election of Dr. Randolph H. McKim, of Washington. An address by Bishop Doane on the divisions of Christendom led to considerable discussion because of his remarks as to the possible recognition of the primacy of the Pope as Bishop of Rome, though he expressly declared that papal supremacy as interpreted by Roman Catholics could never be admitted.

Samuel Ives Curtiss

In the sudden death of Professor Samuel Ives Curtiss in London, September 22, the Christian world loses a scholar of ripe experience and much originality. He had been for twenty-six years professor of Old Testament studies in the Congregational Seminary at Chicago. His most original work was begun after he had passed the age of fifty, and was left uncompleted by his death. This was an investigation of the religious and ceremonial customs of Palestine and Syria at the present day considered in their relation to the primitive Semitic religion of three thousand years ago. Astonishing as it may seem, Professor Curtiss found surviving in the villages of Syria, among people nominally Mohammedans, sacrificial customs and religious ideas which seem to have survived through all the changes since biblical times, and bear witness to the enduring character of the religious system common to all the Semitic races of antiquity. The bearing of these researches upon the interpretation of the Old Testament, especially upon the significance of the Hebrew sacrificial system and its meaning in the Christian system, has been recognized by many scholars of the highest rank. Professor Curtiss was also a practical and efficient religious worker, giving many years to the extension of mission churches of his denomination in Chicago.

Charles Wagner

Much interest has been excited in religious circles by the arrival in this country of M. Charles Wagner, a leader of the French "liberal Protestant" movement. Even the secular papers have devoted space to accounts of his work and addresses. M. Wagner has become widely known through his published writings. These are ten in number, but those most familiar to Americans are "The Simple Life," and "Jeunesse" ("Youth"). He is an apostle of simple living and has been called a preacher of the commonplace because his topics are of every-day things and universal needs. He claims for himself absolute liberty of thought and speech and has not hesitated to speak boldly against many modern vices. He is brusque in manner, but is one of those who have been described as "diamonds in the rough." On acquaintance, he is found to be full of sympathy, amiability and good cheer. M. Wagner is at present pastor of a liberal religious society which worships in a hall in the Bastile district of Paris, but is soon to have a commodious church building nearer the center of Paris, to be called "Le Foyer de l'Ame."

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THE TOWN HALL, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND

BRITISH MUNICIPAL PRACTICE VERSUS AMERICAN MUNICIPAL THEORY

BY

FRANCIS W. PARKER

MEMBER OF THE ILLINOIS SENATE

[Senator Parker is connected with various reform movements in Chicago and Illinois. In view of the approaching fight for a new charter for Chicago, he spent the past summer in studying the municipal institutions of Great Britain to see the actual working of British municipal politics, and his impressions and conclusions are worthy of serious attention on the part of all those who are interested in the perplexing questions of municipal ownership in the United States.—EDITORS.]

THE average American admits the superiority of British municipal administrations, and particularly their freedom from graft, and accepts American municipal failure as a necessary evil which time alone can cure. He explains and seeks to quiet his conscience by placing the blame on the conditions which surround our cities. He says we must have unified administrations, no partisan politics, the merit system, no municipal ownership, an increased leisure class, further assimilation of the foreign populations, and a good mayor with autocratic powers, or at least some of these things, before we can have good city government like the British. Are these conditions essential? Must America wait until time has effected such great revolutions?

However fascinating a unified government may seem, certainly nothing in America can equal the

Complexity of British City Government

In London, the imperial government is a local government, for its Parliament annually passes many local bills; its local government board passes on municipal

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bond issues; its board of trade makes the controlling rules touching public health and safety, and it also administers the police department. The London County Council is the general local governing body, but by its side stand the Water Board, the Thames Conservancy, the Lee Conservancy and the Asylums Board. As district authorities, we find the city proper, twenty-eight boroughs, each with its mayor and council, and a multitude of poor-law unions. In London there are thirty city governments, twenty-nine mayors and nearly two thousand aldermen — and yet it is well governed.

The County Council on July 5, 1904, decided to promote a bill in Parliament for leave to lay and operate a street car line over Westminster Bridge and along the Embankment. To do this the council must secure (1) a permissive act of Parliament specifying the route, (2) the assent of each of the borough councils through whose territory the line is to pass, (3) the assent of the local government board to the necessary bond issue, and then (4) the line must be laid and equipped under Board of Trade regulations and (5) operated under the control of the metropolitan police. This illustrates, coincident with good administrations, the complexity of local government.

Again, Americans have cultivated the belief that partisan politics in the council is inconsistent with good government, and yet

British Council Politicians

are not so innocent of partisan tendencies as we are taught to believe. In the first place, nearly every member of a British council is nominated by the ward caucus of the national party to which he belongs. Hammersmith, in London, with a population of one hundred thousand, may illustrate such organizations, for there the Conservative Club, which elects and claims members of the borough and county councils, as well as Parliament, has a complete borough organization with an executive committee of sixty members, a like ward organization in each of its eleven wards, fixed places of meeting, and a regularly printed year-book.

When elected, the councilors divide on national party lines and so caucus on the council organization. In Conservative Liverpool, the lord mayor and every committee chairman except one is a Conservative. A bitter debate in the London County Council on July 5, 1904, on the question of accepting from the national government certain Boer trophies and erecting them in the parks, not only revived the sad story of the Boer War and its animosities, but showed how the council is divided along national party lines and how readily imperial politics may touch elbows with city business.

The civil service is not entirely free from partisan council influence. It is affirmed by many, though denied by some, that the late Sir Arthur Forwood, the great Conservative leader, said: "I want it understood that the way to preferment in Liverpool is through the Conservative party." Councilor A. T. Salvidge, a former associate of Sir Arthur, an able and experienced councilor and a great labor leader, is in fact a boss. He keeps the labor element in the Conservative party and thus keeps the Conservative party in power.

"How do you manage to lead the workingmen?" I asked him.

"By advocating what is best for their interest."

"But you must remunerate the workers in some way?"

"They call me a boss, but I never gave or promised money or place to any one for political support."

"But offices have to be filled?"

"Yes, and I might propose a friend, and even one influential in his locality, but no person would be proposed by me or considered by the council who did not possess the necessary qualifications, and if appointed he immediately goes out of politics. He can no longer serve on his ward committee."

The British councilors are politicians and generally more bitter in their partisanship than the ordinary American city politician. With them, however, politics is not a mere business, but a high calling. To their credit be it said that on merely local business questions they are strictly non-partisan and, touching employes, they seem to think first of the public service.

The British Municipal Civil Service

disregards almost entirely the merit system, to the amazement of the American reformer, to whom it is so sacred. Eng-

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lishmen do apply it in some of the clerical work, but in the great department services men obtain and hold their positions solely at the will of the council committee. The process of appointment is illustrated by the borough of Southwark, which, in June, 1904, wanted a health inspector. They advertised, and thirty applicants were examined by the subcommittee; four of these were certified to the full committee; two were selected by it for submission to the council; and from these the council selected the fortunate man, whose salary was less than a thousand dollars. The Liverpool council, July 2, 1904, passed an act increasing a certain painter's salary fifty cents a week. The London County Council, July 5, 1904, passed an act employing a certain clerk at $15 a week, and on June 20, 1904, another increasing the wages of a certain clerk of works from $17 to $21 a week.

In short, an English municipal department is a corporation. The committee chairman is president; the committee members are the directors; the head of the department is the general manager, and the civil service system which prevails is that of every well-regulated private corporation, and nothing more.

The American who dreads municipal ownership for fear of its being used to create political machinery and rob the public, and who declares that we must first establish the merit system, may be astonished when he learns the extent of the development of

British Municipal Trading

under these conditions.

Municipalization of public utilities in the nature of monopolies operating under, on, or over the streets and serving a large percentage of the people is unopposed in Great Britain, except by adversely affected capital and certain distinguished Americans interested in promotion. A large majority of the councilors and the public favor a much broader program.

THE TOWN HALL OF LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND

Seeking to learn "the other side" of municipalization in Great Britain, the investigator is at every turn referred to Mr. Arthur Kay, a distinguished citizen of Glasgow and head of the great merchandising house of Arthur & Company, as

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the arch enemy of municipalization. He is president of the Citizens' Union and the Taxpayers' Federation. When asked, "Do you think Glasgow should own and operate its trams?" he answered, "Certainly. The owning and operating of these tramways has been highly profitable and thoroughly satisfactory, the accounting is correct, and nobody opposes it."

"But you think the trams should be operated for profit in relief of rates?"

"Not at all. They should be run on a low factor of safety, and profits be sunk in betterments or reduction of charges."

"But this is socialism?"

"Well, they call it socialism — municipal socialism."

And this from the gentleman who was to have given the final word against municipalization!

Moreover, he approved of municipal gas and other undertakings, and added, "My complaint is that they are inclined to launch out into rather too many undertakings."

Sir Bosdin Leech, the nestor of the Manchester council and an ex-lord mayor, explained to me that Manchester operated its trams because it had to. They first leased them and tried to get company operation, but at last found out that they could not make a contract which the tram company would keep, so they municipalized the trams, with the result that the employes had better pay and shorter hours, the public lower fares and better service, the plant better equipment, and the city substantial net contributions to its revenue.

The words of these two men reveal the Briton's attitude on municipalization. He is not afraid of terms or theories. He cares not whether you call him saint or socialist, if only he gets the best thing for the least money. He never goes into a municipal enterprise on a theory of society or as an experiment in sociology. With him, it is a practical expedient. He wants to know what is the best thing for his city touching that branch of the public service which is in question, and then he is for it. All the great cities, with Glasgow at the head, have municipalized many of their public utilities.

THE GLASGOW TOWN HALL

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Glasgow, with its surroundings gray, gloomy and granitic, with its people in whom the fanaticism of John Knox has become a frenzy for business, with its docks and harbors made by an expenditure of $50,000,000 on a shallow brook which nature never intended for a port, with its ships on every sea and its successful sons in every land; Glasgow, where all things — the mountains, the buildings, the people and even the colors of the garments they wear — are firm and solid, is a poor place to find foolish experiments or crazy schemes. What Glasgow has successfully done in government or business must challenge the respectful attention of all the world, and probably most cities would do better to copy than attempt to improve upon her.

How long can an American city stop a movement which is demanded by a majority of her citizens whenever they have a chance to vote and is approved by the judgment and illustrated by the fortunate experience of the great British cities with Glasgow at their head? Municipalization of the great public utilities in America is inevitable.

Our American, lamenting the corruption and incompetency of city government, sighs for the leisure classes by whom he fondly supposes British municipalities are governed.

The Leisure Class in British City Politics

is simply a myth. It may appear in Parliament. It may, to a certain extent, appear in the London County Council, probably the most august local governing body in the world. But it does not appear anywhere else.

Who constitute the backbone of the successful British councils? You get but one answer: "For the most part busy business men — the men who are now making, or, having already made their fortunes, have not yet retired. Busy professional men in active practice." In the large city councils it is said that from a fifth to a third of the members might maintain their present style of life without continuing in active business. On the other hand, workingmen and small shopkeepers constitute probably a third of the councils of Glasgow, Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester, while a larger proportion of such members is found in the borough councils of London. The lord mayor of Liverpool is an active lawyer; the lord provost of Glasgow is a miller; the chairman of the police committee in Glasgow is a paper dealer. A gentleman for years active in the Glasgow council, and who received the degree of LL.D. from the university for his services, was a toy merchant. The head of the committee on trams in Manchester is an imperial government employe on a small salary.

And these cases are not exceptional. Substitute for four or five ward heelers a like number of our best citizens in the average American council or legislature and you will have a body equal in capacity, social position and wealth to an ordinary British council. America has the material for good municipal councils without waiting for the leisure class to grow.

Another refuge of the apologizing American is our foreign population. He assumes that English urban populations are homogeneous and hence vastly superior to American. The principal English cities are ports with all that that term implies. They have large foreign populations derived from the lowest type of continental immigrants, for they accept those who are not allowed to enter the United States. The dregs of English, Scotch, Welsh and Irish communities are drawn off to fill up the measure of the populations of England's great cities.

In many localities drink presents a social factor utterly unknown in America. Excessive drinking is not the dissipation, but the real object of living. In a certain Liverpool low-class residence district, a well-informed public man said that he believed half of the women were habitually heavy drinkers. In some British cities an appreciable factor in the death rate is said to be the list of children accidentally smothered by drunken mothers. Drunken children and drunken soldiers in the King's uniform may be seen on some of the public streets unmolested.

Poverty of a pinching, grinding, persisting character unknown in America is common. Long lines of men and women wait for hours at the theater doors to get the best unreserved seats where there are three or four prices and the highest for a reserved seat is twenty-five cents.

Education, too, among these classes is at a low ebb. For these and other reasons

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SIR JOHN URE PRIMROSE, LORD PROVOST OF GLASGOW
A far-seeing statesman, a keen politician, the busiest man in Glasgow

an American municipality presents a better population for the municipal administrator than the ordinary British city.

Our reformer calls for a mayor with more power.

Britons are astonished at America's undemocratic way of bestowing autocratic powers on the mayor, for their mayors are but the presiding officers of the council, without power of veto or appointment.

The chief English cities have lord mayors who are elected by the council from their number, to serve each for one year, and that genial gentleman, Sir

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Robert Hampson, of Liverpool, recently knighted, is a fine example. He is a successful lawyer of large experience in the council. His blotter is full of notes of numerous appointments for each day for weeks, showing that the lord mayor of Liverpool is required to make a business of public functions. To-day he presides over a charitable society, to-morrow at the unveiling of a statue, again at the dedication of a school. He is expected to give banquets and entertainments in the town hall at which it is a distinction to be present.

Municipal Dignity

The town hall is a dignified and richly furnished building with stately apartments for the lord mayor and lady mayoress, and a beautiful banqueting hall. On state occasions it is brilliantly illuminated and in the hands of scarlet and gold functionaries. The lord mayor, in costume of velvet and lace, with his sword and the golden collar of the city, in courtly fashion receives his guests. All is dignified and stately, and in the midst is the lord mayor dispensing in a regal manner the hospitalities of an imperial city. It is a reminiscence of Venice and the Italian republics, a suggestion of medieval dignity and civic importance, a burst of grandeur in the common street music of modern industrialism. No man can see an English lord mayor thus surrounded by what is brightest and best in municipal government without having a more exalted opinion of the city and a higher respect for the people who so much respect themselves. As Americans, we might not wish to import the scarlet and gold functionaries, but we might do well to place our city governments in splendid buildings and make the city hall, instead of being a refuge for human rats, an object of civic pride and the center of social life for rich and poor alike.

The Scotch lord provosts or mayors serve for three years. Sir John Ure Primrose, Bart., lord provost, a far-seeing statesman, a keen politician and a strenuous worker, is the busiest man in Glasgow. He presides over the council meetings, sits with the committees, leads the Clyde trust, assists in the promotion of legislation at London, gathers councilors and heads of departments almost daily in his splendid offices, for consultation on the public business, and thus to the social duties required of the provost adds the enormous range of duties which belong to the busiest member of the city council and the Clyde trust. His time is not frittered away on appointments or department details, touching which the committees have full power, but no great enterprise or important movement is undertaken without his sanction and assistance.

What, then, does an inspection of British municipal practice reveal to an American reformer with his theories of city government? This: The British cities have the most complex local administrations, with multiplied overlapping jurisdictions; partisan politics; little or no merit system; a most extensive scheme of municipal ownership; no leisure class in city politics; populations which, man for man, are less desirable as a basis of municipal government than the population of an ordinary American city; and mayors without the appointing or veto power. And yet these cities are well governed. The things he thought necessary are wanting and the conditions he was afraid of are present.

The Secret of Success

What is the theory on which British municipalities have proceeded to success? Bailie Cleland, a devoted member of the council and a marked man in the Glasgow corporation, and Dr. Crawford, who for long and distinguished services in the council received the degree of LL.D. from the university, agreed in pointing out what is probably the best explanation possible of British municipal success. "How do you get good men to run for the council?" "By giving them duties of such a high character as to merit the attention of strong men." Clearly a councilor who may become chairman of his committee, and thus president, as it were, of a vast public service, who receives social distinction and is in the only path which leads to the chair of mayor, has something more to allure him than the gloomy prospect of insignificance and the loss of reputation ahead of the American councilor. "How do you prevent incapable and dishonest men from wrecking your city affairs?" "By keeping them out of the council." "How do you keep them out of the council?" "By the force of public sentiment,

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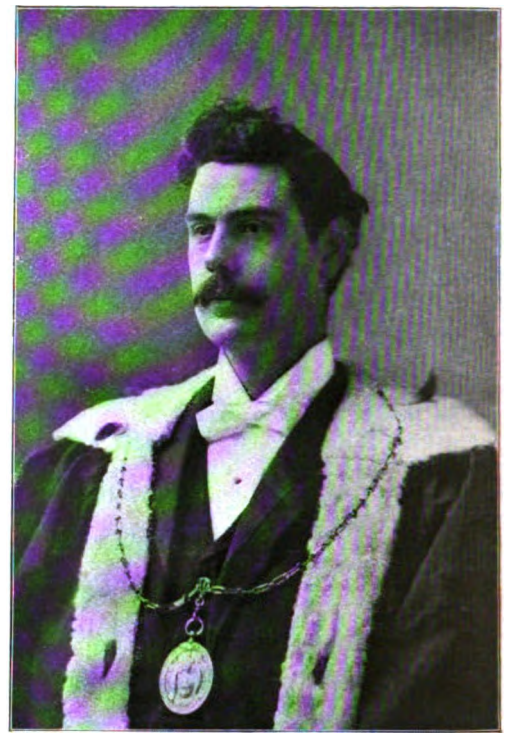
ROBERT CRAWFORD, LL.D.
Member of the Glasgow Council



COUNCILOR CHARLES J. CLELAND, J.P.
Convener of Watch and Fire Committees, Glasgow

which declares that men of character and capacity shall be put in such positions and tolerates no others." "How do you justify the multiplied municipal activities of Glasgow?" "It is the business of a municipality to create conditions by which every citizen, great or small, may work out, under the most favorable surroundings, his own highest possible destiny."

Yes, these cities are run in the interest of all, by the best citizens, kept there by an educated and alert public sentiment. They do not pretend to rely upon theory or a set of administrative rules or a form of government. A form of government is not a force; it is only an opportunity. The democratic form is an opportunity for the righteous to rule. The Englishman takes advantage of that opportunity, knowing what Americans seem to forget, that otherwise a democratic form of government may be even worse than an oligarchy or a despotism. He wants a system of administration which will induce good men to go into the council rather than a system which only tends to compensate for the blunders of incompetent councilors and to check the thieving of dishonest ones. Glasgow's city government is conceived in this spirit. To seat an American city council of the Tammany type in the chairs of the Glasgow council with the control of that city's enormous revenues, vast properties and thousands of employes would be like turning a carload of hungry Texas steers, after a long, dry railroad trip, into a barren pasture separated from a field of corn by nothing more substantial than the mystic line left by the trailing blanket of the fleeting Indian squaw, as naked, alone and in the moonlight, she circled her newly planted field to fence it against the hungry children of the wild.

This, then, is the plain truth. There is no necessary time limit for American city improvement. We can get good government, as the evangelists say about salvation, now, if we want it. The way to have good city government is to have it. Nothing stands between America and splendid city administrations now except the lethargy and the lack of patriotism of the people.

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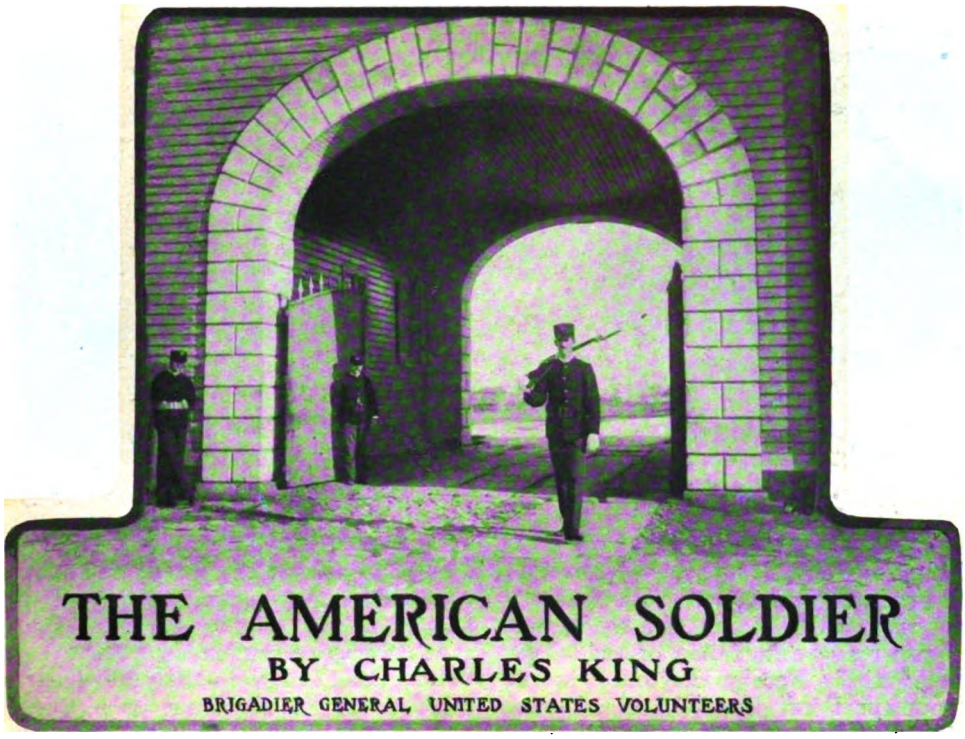

THE AMERICAN SOLDIER

BY CHARLES KING

BRIGADIER GENERAL, UNITED STATES VOLUNTEERS

THREE generations of our men-at-arms have saluted their flag within rifle-shot of Chicago's old Fort Dearborn. Three distinct eras of American soldier life have been known to her people. There is no city in our land, perhaps, that owes so much to our "regular." There is none, probably, that thinks of him so little. Just about the foot of Eighteenth street, along the lake shore, many of her puny garrison with their helpless women and children were butchered by savage Pottowattomies in 1812. In various sections of the growing city and at odd intervals since, small detachments standing for law and order have been blasphemed, if not brickbated, by semi-savage fellow citizens. The first specimens of our soldiery seen about her unpaved streets wore huge, bell-crowned "shakos" of leather, tipped with a tall pompon and weighted with brazen scales and chains, its center of gravity so placed that if the wearer bowed his head his hat would topple off. His torso was squeezed in a tight-fitting tail coat. He was strapped and belted like Indian babe on the back board. He gazed out from under his sloping visor and over his stiff leather stock on a wilderness of prairie. In the midst of scenes of rural peace and freedom he lived a double life—one of digging and delving, the other of pipeclay and polish—a round of "fuss and feathers" that prevailed through the struggle of 1812, the campaigns of Tippecanoe and Bad Axe and almost up to the days of the Mexican War, by which time the Palmetto cap and monkey jacket had replaced the shako and "spike-tail." By this time, too, the regular was supplemented by the volunteer. Again, in 1861, he was just becoming reconciled to the black felt Kossuth hat with its looped up side and perky feather, to his single-breasted frock and shiny black belts, when the great Civil War came and with it went the last vestige of Scott's ponderous tactics and Scott's magnificent mannerisms. Modern conditions could not stand the first, modern citizens would not tolerate the second. Quiet-mannered men in dusty blue blouses and soft felt hats soon replaced the old-time generals of the epaulet, plume and sash days. The Civil War soldier was a man of action, of many

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ARTILLERY PRACTICE

actions, one whose dress grew plainer and more practical in proportion as his deeds were brave and brilliant. We began that war with many a battalion of red-legged zouaves, with "Foreign Legions" in the dress of the Bersaglieri of Italy, Turcos of France, Hussars of Hungary, with even one regiment of kilted Highlanders among our militia and volunteers; but, little by little, all color was cast aside for the somber, rusty blue, all regimentals were modeled on the uncouth, unpicturesque but serviceable "blouse," with trousers tucked in woolen socks. In that garb Grant's divisions hewed their bloody way from the Rapidan to Appomattox and Sherman's veterans tramped from Atlanta to the sea.

Fifty-four years ago we went to war decked out as for the barrack ballroom. Fifty years ago, and ever since when taking the field, we dropped all that was ornamental and practically stripped for business. Uncle Sam's fighting men of to-day went cheering into action or swinging through the streets of China or the Philippines in a garb that was the scandal and despair of European critics, a laughing mob in slouch hats and shirt sleeves that, from the Prussian point of view, was utterly destitute of discipline or stability—until it began to shoot. Then foreign criticism gave place to unstinted praise. "He is the finest fighter on the face of the globe," said one enthusiastic attaché, who, week after week, had followed the firing line through the bamboo and paddy fields of Luzon, and in spite of his devil-may-care manners and ways, he probably is.

It used to be said in the buckram days before the Civil War that the American soldier was an Irishman or a German, this despite the fact that the riflemen of Tennessee laid low Packenham's veterans in front of the cotton bales at Chalmette, and the Kentuckians, with Henry Clay and McKee at their head, whipped thrice their weight in Santa Ana's regulars at Buena Vista. These were volunteers, however; and, in our scattered little companies of regulars, before, during and for a dozen years after our great war, it must be owned that Irish and German patronymics predominated on the muster rolls. Twenty-five years after the war the boys whose fathers fought through that tremendous struggle began by dozens to be heard of in every regiment. In 1896, ninety-three per cent of the rank and file of the famous light battery that began the battle in front of Santiago were native-born Americans. It was stationed at Fort Sheridan, close to Chicago, and Chicago people, when told of it, thought the story a fable.

Old line officers, men of the fighting force, are given to saying that the young regular of to-day is not the peer of the old regular of the sixties, much less of the seasoned, trained and well-tried soldier of the line of the army at the outbreak of the Spanish War. It is doubtful if, man for man, the nations of the

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A CAMP IN THE FAR WEST

world could match in point of intelligence and all-round efficiency our twenty thousand regulars in 1898. It is certain they could not match them in ability to shoot. The way those fellows carried all before them at Santiago in face of furious fire, and in spite of severe loss, won the enthusiastic praise of European lookers-on. Then came Manila, where the little army of occupation, one-sixth regulars, five-sixths state volunteers, taught their dusky assailants a lesson never since forgotten. Then followed the increase—the reorganization—when for a time the just-arrived battalions of foot were so filled with boy recruits that ruefully the officers declared they were little better than raw conscripts. It took time to lick them into shape, but they are fast working up to the plane occupied by their elders half a decade ago, and of these new levies the most remarkable thing is that where, say twenty years ago, we looked for few really American faces in the ranks, few Yankee names upon the rolls, to-day we but seldom hear what once dominated in every conversational sound—the brogue. It is Young America that is finding its way again to the ranks, lads from the farm, the shop and the school, lads with a longing to see the world. To an extent never dreamed of in the old days, see it, or very much of it, they certainly can, for within the past four years, by hundreds, our boys in blue have girdled the globe, saluted Miss Liberty as they sailed away from Manhattan, gazed in wonderment on the sleeping lion of Gibraltar, dropped in for a friendly call on the garrison at Malta, sweltered through Suez, Colombo and Singapore, tarried a while for service in the Philippines (with a stirring brush or two, perhaps, in Samar or Mindanao) had a peep at Nagasaki or Honolulu on the homeward run, steamed dripping in through the fogs of the Golden Gate and got back to God's country no richer in pocket—because it is the notion of the American soldier to spend rather than to save—but with a wealth ot experience and knowledge a century of home life would never have given them. The boy soldier who left a mere lad of the farm came back at the end of his three years' apprenticeship a traveled man of the world.

Such are some of the opportunities of American soldier life to-day, the life our regulars and our volunteers, state or national, have seen so much of since we shot into prominence as a world power. Now for some of the emoluments and compensations for leaving, temporarily perhaps, the service of the plow, the shop and the stock farm and seeking that of the national flag. Everybody knows, of course, our service is purely voluntary. Unlike that of the rest of Christendom, England and America have no conscript save in time of desperate war. In republican France and Switzerland, for a time at least, every man must be a soldier. In England and the United States no man need be. Perhaps that is why so many

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of our free-borns willingly take the oath —"the shilling" with John Bull, "the blanket" with Uncle Sam. The perilous excitement of our Indian warfare long tempted the bold and hardy spirits of our Yankee boys and kept our ranks well filled against the Sioux, Cheyenne and Apache. Then came the Philippines and the chance of seeing China and Japan. Most people are willing to pay to get there. Our young soldier is paid to go.

Everybody knows, too, that our enlisted man is the best paid soldier on the globe, but few know he is also by long odds the best fed, most comfortably and suitably shod and clothed and cared for. The little Jap is probably his only rival in point of completeness of equipment, but the Jap thrives on what our sturdy lad would probably starve on—rice and dried fish, with an occasional noggin of tea. We have to make conditions attractive for our American boy or he will not soldier at all. We had made them far more attractive, safe and inexpensive to him when our Post Exchange, the mis-called "canteen," was in full and successful operation, and he had almost everything that the soldier could reasonably desire right at his fingers' ends and within his sentry lines.

Except, however, that Congress has now denied him the comforts his officers would gladly accord him, and subjects him to dangers they sought earnestly to avert, the soldier citizen of the nation leads in peace times a life well guarded and governed. In war times he seems to have no favors to ask of anybody. As compared with the precise, ramrod soldier of Europe, he certainly lacks something in dress and deportment. He hates a buttoned-up coat and is never so happy as in a blue flannel shirt. He despises a helmet and loves the slouch hat, the more uncouth the shape the better. He reads and reasons quite as much as some of his officers, and he takes their measure with unflattering ease and unfaltering truth, grudgingly according the occasional drone and weakling his show of respect, but fighting to the death for him who has won his faith and confidence. There is no soldier in the world who will more heartily obey and follow the real soldier among

JUST ARRIVED IN CAMP

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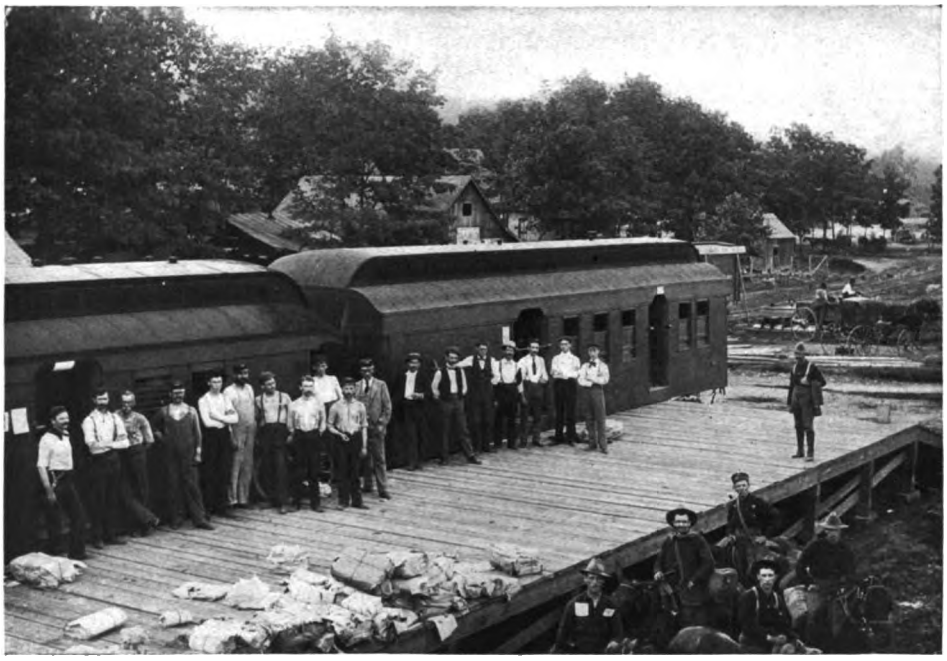
his officers, or who can quicker detect and more heartily despise the sham. The average Yankee is born with an odd repugnance to showing deference to anybody, even when he feels it. The unlettered and unthinking regard it as confession of inferiority. It is easy to make our soldier a marksman. It is impossible to make him a machine. He learns to shoot in half the time it takes him to understand the salute. This recognition he will accord the officers of his own squadron or battalion when they meet in public and away from the drill ground, but put him on the streets of Manhattan or Manila, Chicago or Chefoo and only the veteran of many enlistments, and often not he, will so notice an officer he doesn't happen to know. That is why straight-laced soldiers of Britain and Germany thought him a "slouch" till they saw him fight. Then they called him a wonder.

He has his own ideas, too, of who are and who are not his best friends and best officers, and these ideas he does not get from the papers. No officers were ever much better loved by their men than two or three systematically denounced by the press. He knows his rights and needs no newspaper coaching as to his wrongs —when he has them—and of these he has fewer than most men from those in authority. His real wrongs are not, as a rule, encountered while serving, but after serving and because of having served as a soldier. In view of the innumerable pensions we pay, this statement may seem incredible, but let any man armed with an admirable certificate from his commanding officer, as to his fidelity, intelligence and sobriety, make the round of business houses in Chicago and many another city I wot of, ask for employment, and note the result. In nine cases out of ten he is cold-shouldered out of the shop. "We have no use for ex-soldiers," is often the answer. "He must have been good for nothing else or he never would have been a soldier," is generally the idea.



MAIL FROM HOME

Now we do these things better abroad. In Germany, where every sound man has to be a soldier, the surest passport to em-

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GIVING OUT SUPPLIES

ployment in civil life is an honorable discharge and certificate of service. In America it should be of equal value and it isn't worth the price of the parchment. In Germany you see no slouching street loafers and tramps. Our streets and roads abound with them; so, too, in England. In Germany even the uncouth, hulking boor of the fields when drafted into the ranks is speedily transformed, by regular drill, scientific gymnastic exercise and close supervision, into an alert, sinewy, shapely man. From infancy to eighteen he may have lived like the "dumb, driven cattle," his principal associates. A bath, a shave and clean clothes he knew nothing of. In six months he has been taught to keep himself, his clothing and his kit in perfect order, to exercise long hours in the open air, to eat at regular intervals, to sleep in clean and airy rooms, to be prompt, precise, respectful of self and respectful to others. There are thousands of our unemployed hanging about street corners and saloons, resentful of authority, respectful to no one, dirty, disreputable, drunken and not one in a hundred of these actual voters and fellow citizens has had the benefit of a year in the army, all mainly because of the rampant Yankee idea that army life is voluntary serfdom. The average uneducated, untaught American shuns it because he hates to be made to behave, to be made to do anything. Sovereign citizen that he is, he would rather starve and be ragged but independent, than feast and serve.

And yet, such is the benefit of educated intelligence, by hundreds every year in peace time and by thousands every day when the war drums are rolling, young men of excellent families and from happy homes come to our recruiting offices and seek to enlist. Many call but few are chosen. This will surprise some readers, who think, as did a model church and society woman of my acquaintance, that her wayward boy had reached the depths of degradation when he finally succeeded in getting into the army. He had been at intervals for several years in the gutter, the police court, the various "cures" and retreats. He finally disappeared for months and then it transpired that he had "taken a brace," as he expressed it, and passed the examinations. To the poor mother's mind this was the last pound. She was hardly consoled by the sight of a letter from his captain saying the lad

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THE DINNER HOUR

was one of the most alert, intelligent, reliable men he had in his company, was sure of his chevrons and was a model soldier. It had not occurred to her that in order to get there he must be free from the faintest symptom of drink, drug or disease, that he must be sound as a dollar and bring certificate of character from some reliable citizen.

Yes, I admit that there are occasional scenes of strife, of drink and disorder, in which our soldiers figure, but they are nowhere near as frequent or severe as they were forty years ago at the fag end of the Civil War. They had almost been eliminated, through the medium of our post exchange system, when "prohibition," forced upon our garrisons, drove our men again to the streets and thence to the slums. The "canteen" so-called, was the common sense way of dealing with the demon of drink; but the devil himself must have grinned with the dive-keepers when fanaticism finally had its way.

Afoot or on horseback, regular or volunteer, as you see him to-day, however, our "man behind the gun" is a man worth the knowing. Take him all in all, and a physically sounder and morally straighter soldier doesn't live or dwell on the face of the globe. Like English "Tommy Atkins," as well as the sailor Jackies of Anglo-Saxon blood, he has his faults and limitations. He "comes higher" than do the rankers of other lands, but he fights harder. With fewer numbers he accomplishes greater results. He has patience illimitable in face of a turbulent mob of his own people, but he pulls trigger quick, sudden and sure when he gets the word. He is the bugbear of demagogue orators before an election, but the sure defense of society at any time. He presided over Chicago's early infancy and thrice since the great Civil War has he come with fixed bayonets to stand between her and anarchy. He is proud of his flag and his country. He is stout-hearted, clean-limbed, law-abiding, self-respecting as a rule. He wants to be held and hailed as a man, not a boy. He devotes reasonable time and thought to his drill, but he delights in healthful, hearty, outdoor sport, baseball, football and polo preferred. He sometimes slights the little niceties of military carriage and courtesies, but he will cheerfully submit to the sternest discipline, the hardest privations, the heaviest trials when he knows

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SUNDAY MORNING IN CAMP

the need; and, finally, when it comes to fighting, he will charge with finer fury and enthusiasm or hold his ground with more grim, dogged tenacity, and all the time shoot with great skill and precision, than any other man-at-arms of all the vaunted legions of Europe. His one great wish seems to be that the people he so loyally serves might know him as he is: a man to depend on in fair weather or foul, a soldier to be proud of at all times and in all places.

GOING AFTER COMMISSARY SUPPLIES

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AN EXPERIMENT IN COMMUNISM

THE DOUKHOBÓR COMMENTARY ON TOLSTOYISM

BY

AYLMER MAUDE

TRANSLATOR OF TOLSTOY'S WORKS

MOTHER OF VERIGIN
Leader of the Doukhobors

COMMUNAL form of property holding is still general among the Doukhobórs. It was once the usual form among primitive nations. Western nations have so completely dropped the practice that they have come to look upon it as abnormal, utopian, or even impossible, and I frequently found that Canadians regarded communism as a form of society sure to die out from contact with the better, individualistic form common in civilized countries. In England, too, I found that members of the Friends' Doukhobór Committee, sensible, practical, conscientious men—quite ready to approve of the Doukhobór repudiation of militarism—looked on communism as something erratic, and by no means to be approved or encouraged. Nearly every one had a decided opinion on this matter, but I met no one who seemed able to give an intelligible and sufficient reason for disapproving of communism. The few who approved of it, on the other hand, gave what at first sight seemed satisfactory reasons for their view.

In the studies of our economists (e. g., John Stuart Mill) communism receives respectful treatment; in the aspirations of our reformers (e. g., William Morris) it is looked forward to as an ideal. But opportunities are so rare of seeing its advantages and disadvantages in practice that we should not miss the chance presented by the Doukhobór settlement in Canada, of studying it in operation.

By examining Doukhobór communism, we may incidentally throw light on the strength or weakness of Tolstoy's criticism of modern "civilization." No one who knows the present conditions of life (say, in England, for example) can doubt the validity of much of Tolstoy's negative criticism. Labor divorced from the soil; eight hundred thousand people living in illegally overcrowded dwellings in London alone; children compelled to go hungry to school; vast revenues flowing into the pockets of ground landlords who have done nothing to earn them; town populations losing their energy, and dying out at latest in the third generation unless recruited from the country districts—where, again, the laborer is hopeless of ever being allowed to own the land he works—all this, surely, justifies a scathing indictment. Above all, we know that the grinding poverty of the many, though it brings wealth to the few, does not bring them health or happiness. To be contented, men should be in touch with the real problems of life; to be happy they should cooperate with their fellows for worthy objects, but the complexity and artificiality of modern society tends to cut men off from what is best and most important in life.

But granting—and it surely can not reasonably be denied—the validity of Tolstoy's general indictment of modern society, may we assume that he is right as to the remedy?

The question admits of no simple answer. One has to discriminate between two different sides of it. As to the first

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of these sides, undoubtedly the remedy lies in the direction pointed out by Tolstoy: it is by serving his fellows that man truly lives. It is only by thought, and effort, and by loving sacrifice, that true progress can be accomplished.

But, as to the second side of the matter —and it is here the crux comes—is Tolstoy right when he tells us that, as a matter of moral duty, we ought to use no force to our fellow man, hold no private property, and to reject every system of law or government that employs a policeman or a soldier? When we have studied the Doukhobórs we may be the better able to answer this question.

In February, 1900, when it had become evident that a large part of the Doukhobórs in Canada were inclined to adopt individualism, Tolstoy sent them an urgent letter, exhorting them to communism and expressing, in the strongest manner, the belief that communism is a *moral*—as contrasted with individualism, which is an *immoral*—form of property holding. When Tolstoy's letter was written neither he nor any of us knew how strong a hold their leader, Peter Verígin, has on their allegiance and reverence, nor how little any mere arguments or exhortations from outside affect them one way or other. Tolstoy's letter (as impressive a statement of the view now adopted by the Doukhobór community as could well be framed) had practically no effect on them, and the movement toward individualism continued to gain ground.

A DOUKHOBOR FAMILY

One may pause here to notice the very frequent confusion of two different questions: First, whether communism is practically the wisest and best way of getting the people's material needs provided for, and, secondly, whether communism is, in general (and apart from the special circumstances of a particular case) morally superior to individualism. I think that the sequel will show that the two questions must be kept distinct.

There were circumstances connected with the Doukhobór migration which

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brought certain advantages communism undoubtedly possesses very prominently to the front. The actual financing of the movement; the planning of their future villages; the distribution of what was collected for the Doukhobórs, were all made easier by whatever tended to throw the money possessed by the Doukhobórs into a common fund; and were made more difficult by whatever tended in the contrary direction. The advantages of communism in making small resources go as far as possible, were quite evident when it became a question of supplying each village with a couple of horses, or a few cows. A much-needed loan (which might have been successfully negotiated had the Doukhobór commune been as firmly centralized in 1898 as it is now that Peter Verígin is managing them) broke down just because their community was then in too fluid and indefinite a state to enable a collective guarantee to be arranged.

DOUKHOBOR GIRLS IN THEIR SUNDAY SPLENDOR

Prince D. A. Hilkóff, and all those on the spot most capable of judging and most interested in the problem of getting the Doukhobórs comfortably settled, and making their settlement successful, were keenly anxious to get them to adopt, or retain, communism.

The Garden City Movement, and the Ealing Tenants Limited, in England today, are attempts to regain, in an individualistic state, some of the economic advantages which naturally accrue to communistic communities. And it is not too much to say that, as a community, the Doukhobórs would certainly have perished in the years 1895-1898, but for the collective strength that resulted from their communism. The Russian government had to face the task of utterly ruining all their villages and all their settlements before it could feel that it had quite crushed any of them.

But, whatever the advantages of communism may be, no sooner had the first Doukhobórs reached Canada than it became obvious that many of them preferred to run the risks and dangers of individualism; nor do I think that in so choosing they were always prompted by selfishness, or showed themselves morally inferior to their brethren.

From 1899, when they reached Canada, to 1903, when Peter Verígin, having been released from Siberia, joined them in Canada and assumed active leadership, an unusual state of things existed. The Doukhobórs, as a community, were unable to decide either for or against communism. Some villages became communist, others individualist. The people everywhere had their own clothes, utensils and personal belongings; but in regard to wages earned at railway construction, or by gathering senega root—as well as in all that concerned raising crops, marketing surplus produce, purchasing supplies, dividing the work, tending, rearing, using and selling horses or cattle—a number of villages were communist, while others were individualist; and the number of communist villages diminished, though it was evident (from the statistics of their

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cattle, horses and implements, as well as from other indications) that the communist villages generally prospered more rapidly than the individualist villages. The best informed judges on the spot felt sure than an end of Doukhobór communism was approaching.

It was also very noticeable that while the members of communist villages and individualist villages were both able to live in comparative peace and harmony, very considerable friction and dissatisfaction became manifest wherever a village was in a transition state between communism and individualism. The uncertainty as to what one man might fairly claim from another seemed fatal to good feeling. This I believe to be a fundamental fact of great importance in all human society: to promote peace and amity among men a distinct understanding as to the limits of their property claims on one another is essential, quite apart from the question whether they mean to use the property selfishly or unselfishly. A man may want a spade to dig potatoes for a poor neighbor, but unendurable friction may arise if he can not find whether he has a right to the spade, or of whom he may borrow it, if it be not his.

DOUKHOBOR GIRLS MAKING FANCY WORK FOR SALE IN MONTREAL

An unpleasant feature of the situation was the unfriendly relation that sometimes arose between one village and another. For instance, in December, 1899, Herbert P. Archer, then living among the Doukhobórs, wrote:

"I am sorry to say that in one village your loan was not much use to the people. It was a poor village and needing help, and they bought horses with the money. But it owed money to another

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and richer village, which took away those horses, and credited the animals against the debt at about half what they had cost. The horses were not worth more, the richer village averred. This is a very shameful piece of work, and is justly reprobated by the better class of Doukhobórs. But the creditor village kept the horses, and for some time the debtor village had to rely on the teams of a neighboring village to fetch its flour supply from town."

The appearance of Peter Verígin on the scene quite altered the state of affairs and the whole trend of events. Not only did the individualist villages, one after another, resume communism, but the communism of the different villages was centralized, so that the communal funds are now all controlled by a committee of three.

Of the material advantages that accrue from this arrangement there can be no doubt. The wholesale purchases, made at Winnipeg for the Doukhobórs by their best experts, effect a great economy as compared with small buyings by separate villages at Yorkton or other small towns.

An approximate list of purchases made by Verígin and his attendants in Winnipeg in September, 1903, will give some idea of the scale on which operations are now carried on.

300 horses.
100 gang stubble plows.
5 threshing machines.
5 portable engines (drawn by horses).
2 sawmills.
5 flour mills.
About one hundred sets of harrows, etc.

The Doukhobórs are now grinding their own flour by steam power; sawing planks by steam; building large granaries; planting trees in the village streets, and showing innumerable signs of well-directed communal activity, which is rewarded by rapid progress in material prosperity.

Even in small things the same tendency to centralization and to the utilization of mechanical appliances is noticeable. For instance, I lately received a typewritten letter, in Russian, from Verígin, evidently written by his secretary, and enclosing a check, repaying in one remittance $1,250, which had been lent to five different villages in 1899; a repayment that could easily (after all the confusion of the pilgrimage) have been shirked, had the Doukhobórs not wished to act honestly.

But the remarkable and quite unforeseen part of the matter is this: that while the reëstablishment of communism does not at all indicate (as my Canadian and Quaker friends seemed to think must be the case) any industrial or social deterioration, neither does it at all correspond (as I, agreeing in this respect with the Tolstoyans, was at one time inclined to assume) with any *moral* advance; but, in many cases, rather the contrary.

To hold a community together, either great identity and immutability of life-habits is requisite, so that the members, from force of habit, may not want to do anything that runs counter to the communal customs, or else they must be under a very strong leadership that dominates and more or less hypnotizes them. In the latter case, rapid, collective material progress is quite possible, so long as the strong and capable leader is there, to sanction changes and decide what changes shall be tolerated, and when they may be introduced.

The objection to communism, as we see it reëstablished among the Doukhobórs, is a moral objection; though at first sight it may not appear as weighty as the moral indictment Tolstoy brings against individualism. The fact, I suspect, is that any form of human organization that a man of Tolstoy's powerful critical capacity, impulsive temperament, and eagerness for human improvement might be living under, would (being a human contrivance and therefore imperfect) seem abominably wicked; and the one of which he had less personal experience would, by reaction, appear to him moral. I feel sure that if he can not tolerate the yoke of Nicholas II., still less would he tolerate that of Peter Verígin, which certainly comes closer to the actual daily life, and thought, and occupation of each Doukhobór than that of any emperor or pope in Christendom. Nor do I say this as blaming Verígin for his activity. His people needed leadership; they asked for it; they had got into terrible trouble for lack of it, and he has given it to them; and given it to them with judgment and ability, not sparing himself the drudgery of attention to details, or the difficult work of adjusting personal quarrels.

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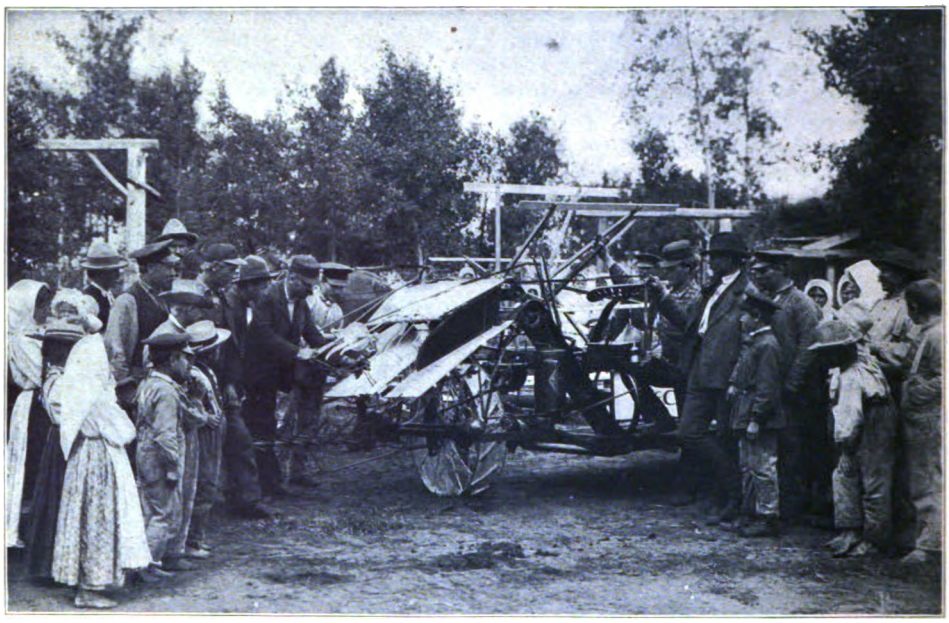

EXPLAINING THE HARVESTING MACHINE TO DOUKHOBOR PURCHASERS

But my point is, that the forces of disintegration which, though not at present very strong or very much in evidence, certainly exist among the Doukhobórs (as shown by the fact that, a few at a time, individual Doukhobórs and Doukhobór families, break off and escape from the commune), are by no means always the result of selfishness or of moral inferiority.

Doubtless there are cases in which men break off under selfish influences. A strong man, capable of earning good wages, or seeing his chance to start on his own account, and becoming aware that according to Canadian ideas there is nothing shameful in such conduct, may come to grudge the community the fruits of his labor, or may feel that his exertions are not sufficiently esteemed. But, though this may be one disintegrating factor, another, certainly present, and which I am inclined to believe must always have been a strong factor in the decay of communes, is the moral revolt felt by sincere and strenuous natures against the cramping influence communism has on individuality, and the excessive claims it makes on allegiance to established customs, or to a certain leader. The narrow sectarianism, or clannishness, that usually accompanies communism, must tend to produce a reaction. Where communism exists, a man who wishes to think his own thoughts and express them, and to make his own experiments in life, and to attempt reforms that seem to him desirable, must (unless he be himself the leader) inevitably produce friction, and be a disintegrating force.

There is no denying the service P. Verígin renders to the Doukhobórs by acting as their leader. But there is also no denying that his yoke has not been accepted without opposition, and that the opposition is in some cases a protest against what the protesters consider to be superstition and despotism.

"Dissatisfaction at the new communist régime is keener at Devil's Lake than elsewhere," wrote a well-informed observer, in August, 1903, "and quite a few Doukhobórs are leaving the villages. Their brethren revile them as 'no Doukhobórs' and call them 'Galicians'—which is a kind of insult. (The Doukhobórs despise the Galicians.) Individualists must leave the villages according to Verígin's orders, and this probably

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HAYMAKERS AT DINNER

prevents many from rebelling who, for all that, are unwilling communists. Communism brings discord and strife. At Novo-Tróytskoe (not the Devil's Lake village of that name) there have been at least five regular fights since communism was forced on them. It is not easy to get details of these things, but on one occasion, at least, it was a matter of pitchforks and staves. A Doukhobór from the Devil's Lake Novo-Tróytskoe told me that when they were individualist they lived peacefully, but latterly there has been much quarreling and some fighting."

Iván Kanígin appears to be a typical case of a man dissatisfied with communism. He was a member of the Tróytskoe village, in the Swan River Colony, working with his brother, and having two sons. The village was individualist, and took no part in the pilgrimage movement. The family had horses, cows, sheep, implements and considerable land under cultivation. Verígin, on his arrival in Canada, got the village to go in for communism. Kanígin offered some objections, but Verígin spoke of communism as a kind of experiment which, after a year or so, could be given up if not liked, and Kanígin agreed to try it, and has been unhappy almost ever since. Communism has not resulted in brotherly relations in the village, and Kanígin has chafed under the authority of the leader. Before the year was out he felt it necessary to withdraw from membership in the community, but found that he had to face much unpleasantness. He was, of course, told that he was "no Doukhobór," and his request to have his property (or enough of it to enable him to start with) returned was met by a refusal. They gave him only one horse and one cow—only a small proportion of what he had contributed a year before, and not sufficient for him to get on with. He had worked on the land all summer, but his supplies of flour from the communal store were stopped; and it became difficult for him to get in firewood, plow, or even bring flour and other supplies from the nearest town. Kanígin is said to be "a reliable man, who is really sacrificing much for conscientious reasons. He feels keenly the disharmony set up by the adoption of communism in the village, and he can not stand, or rather bow to, Verígin's authority. As he expresses it, 'I can not say Boss'!"

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Kanígin himself writes, after alluding to the persecution the Doukhobórs suffered in the Caucasus:

"Good or bad, that has all passed; but I think, perhaps they bore oppression from the government because they were too weak to resist, and that if the Doukhobórs had been stronger than the government, then they would have given it to the government still better.

"The Doukhobórs have arranged a commune, called the Christian Commune of Universal Brotherhood, and this whole year they have observed it just as the priests observe some holy image, and they do not see that it is nourished by anger, by defrauding one another, by slander, and by violence. The fraudulent violence we have to submit to is that, though they say: 'Let those join who wish to, and let those remain outside who like; it is a free undertaking,' they add, 'but let each one understand that he who does not live in community may call himself by what name he likes, but must not be called a Doukhobór, and will not enjoy freedom from military service.' "

One unpleasant side of the effort made to impose communism, is the separation, when possible, of dissentient husbands from their wives (in cases where the husband secedes and the wife can be induced to remain in the community).

The story of Doukhobór communism is an unfinished one. What I have wished to do is to call attention to one of the most interesting and peculiar economic and social experiments now going on in an English-speaking land.

It would be rash, at present, to express any decided opinion as to what the next development among the Doukhobórs will be, but I may venture to summarize a few conclusions to which the study of the matter has brought me.

1. For a poor and homogeneous group of people, under efficient and strong leadership, communism offers great advantages, as enabling them to secure food, clothing, housing and fuel for all (especially for the old people, the children and the sick), much more easily than can be accomplished where each family is economically isolated.

2. This result can hardly be permanently attained without some stunting of the intellect. The dominance of the leader (or, in default of a leader, the rigidity of tribal customs) is so essential to the existence and permanence of such a group, that loyalty and devotion to him, acceptance of his ideas and blindness to his failings, grow to an extent which ultimately tends to produce a moral revolt. The utility of loyalty to a leader in primitive communes may help us to understand (as atavism) those displays of enthusiastic devotion to kings, queens and princes which are of quite common occurrence, even among nations whose economic welfare no longer depends on the titular chiefs of the state.

3. It is therefore an error to suppose that the reason why private property tends to supersede communal property is to be found solely in human selfishness; or that one system always deserves a *moral* preference over the other. It is really a question of which system is better suited to a given folk at a given time and place. As soon as men can well afford to do so, they are likely to try to free themselves from the yoke of communism, even at considerable economic loss. The greater freedom for personal experiments given by individualism justifies the sacrifice, though the evils of commercial competition again, in their turn, evoke a revolt.

4. This view is far from presenting any excuse for a selfish use of property. It is the moral duty of every strong and capable person (whether in individualist or communist society) to render to society service exceeding the value of what he or she consumes. For, if the strong and capable fail to do this, the burden must fall on those who are weaker and less capable. It is the neglect of this plain duty (and the fact that the complexity of modern society helps to hide from men's perception the evils caused by sloth and luxury among the rich) that evokes the attacks on private property, which are being formulated ever more and more trenchantly by moralists and thinkers, and echoed more and more fiercely by socialists and anarchists

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TURKEY AND THE AMERICAN SCHOOLS

BY

LEWIS GASTON LEARY

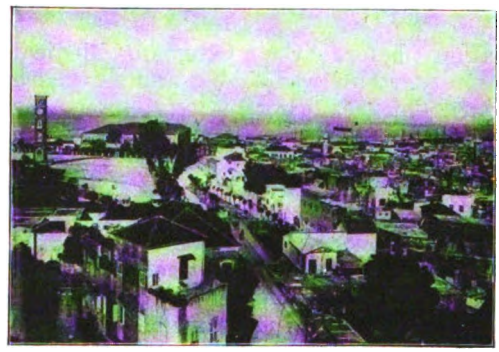
FORMERLY INSTRUCTOR IN THE SYRIAN PROTESTANT COLLEGE, BEIRUT

ONE Friday, so the story runs, an old Moslem preacher went up into his pulpit and asked the congregation whether they knew what the subject of his sermon was to be. Of course they all disclaimed any such knowledge, whereupon the sheikh said: "If you are so stupid that you can not guess what I am going to preach about, there is no use of my trying to explain it to you." And he sent them all home. Next Friday he stood up in the pulpit and put the same question again; but this time the people were wiser, and they all cried: "Yes, indeed, we know quite well the text of your sermon!" "Then there is no need of my telling it to you," responded the wily preacher, as he left the pulpit. Before the third holy day arrived, the congregation had put their heads together, and when the question was again asked, half the people answered, "Yes, indeed!" and the other half said, "No, indeed!" "Is that so?" said the old man. "'Then those of you who know can tell those who don't know!" And he swept his long robes down the pulpit stairs and out of the mosque.

Oriental sophistry and evasiveness have given rise to many humorous incidents, both historical and apocryphal; but when the diplomatic intercourse between two governments is marked by flimsy equivocations and annoying delays, the humorous side of the question is hardly the phase most worthy of emphasis. When a request for more direct diplomatic relations is denied in such terms that the bearers of the refusal do not dare to translate the message literally; when the representative of a republic to a supposedly friendly court is treated with what seems to be intentional discourtesy; when a message from the chief executive of one nation to the ruler of another great nation is unanswered for over a year; and when a second and more insistent demand is reluctantly granted, only to have the concession immediately saddled with conditions that seem intended to prevent its enforcement—under such circumstances it behooves us to examine the claims that are subjecting us to such unusual treatment; for it would seem at first thought that these claims must be unprecedented and exorbitant.

The American Claims

Stripped of confusing technicalities and of minor matters that have been allowed



BEIRUT, SYRIA
The Barracks U. S. S. Brooklyn

to adhere to the main question, our present contention is that the Turkish government has of late years shown an increasing tendency to discriminate against American citizens and to deny to them the privileges and immunities that have been granted to citizens or subjects of "the most favored nation." The specific demands chiefly concern the rights of charitable and educational institutions that are more or less closely connected with American missionary societies.

For many years every graduate of the American medical college at Beirût had to go to Constantinople for his final exami-

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G. R. RAVNDAL
American Consul at Beirut

nation before the Ottoman Medical Faculty. This was a long and expensive journey, the examinations sometimes dragged on month after month, and, especially to Armenian students, residence in the Turkish capital was often an occasion for insolent treatment, if not actual violence. Yet no objection would have been raised to this procedure if it had not been that the French medical college, situated in the same city with the American college, and with no better plant or curriculum, was visited each year by a committee of the Constantinople faculty, who conducted the licensing examination in Beirût, at a trifling expense to the students.

In 1903, after many years of effort, the American college succeeded in obtaining a similar concession; but other grievances still remain. It is asserted that unjust and illegal restrictions have been placed upon the purchase of houses and land by citizens of the United States. The American Press at Beirût has to submit all of its publications to an exasperating double censorship at Constantinople, while the French printing establishment in Beirût is subject only to a local censorship. *Firmans* for the erection of American churches are withheld, although similar permits are granted for the churches of European colonies and missions. Even in the matter of customs immunities, it is claimed that the United States is not "the most favored," but the *least* favored nation.

No New Privileges Asked

It is important to note that the presence of Christian churches and schools within the Turkish Empire does not depend upon any recent concession, but upon ancient capitulations that date back to the early days of the empire. The various immunities that have been granted to Christian residents in Turkey are not privileges magnanimously bestowed by a liberal sultan in order to encourage foreign intercourse, but grow out of the nature of Mohammedan law which expressly prohibits peaceful intercourse with "infidels."

A Mohammedan state can not tolerate non-Mohammedan subjects, excepting as it ignores their internal religious affairs; so, when Mohammed II. conquered Constantinople, he was forced by the law of his religion either to depopulate the city or to accept the legal fiction of extra-territoriality and consider the Christian inhabitants as still resident outside of the new state of Turkey, each in his own country. He chose the latter expedient, confirmed the system of extra-territoriality that had already been long established under the Roman Empire, and gave to the Christians in Constantinople practical autonomy in the assessment of taxes and settlement of internal litigations. To their clergy he allowed special immunities of person, domicile and exercise of ecclesiastical functions, including the founding and maintenance of schools.

The precedent established in 1453 by the Edict of Toleration has been followed for six centuries, and the rights of non-Moslem aliens in Turkey have been confirmed by numerous capitulations and treaties. When American missionaries first entered the country in 1819, participation in all these favors was extended to them, and has since been definitely set forth in international agreements.*

* Notably in the Treaty of 1830, the Note of the Sublime Porte to the United States Legation in September, 1875, the Treaty of Berlin in 1878, and the Visirial Circular of May, 1889. See "Treaty Rights of American Missionaries in Turkey," by H. O. Dwight.

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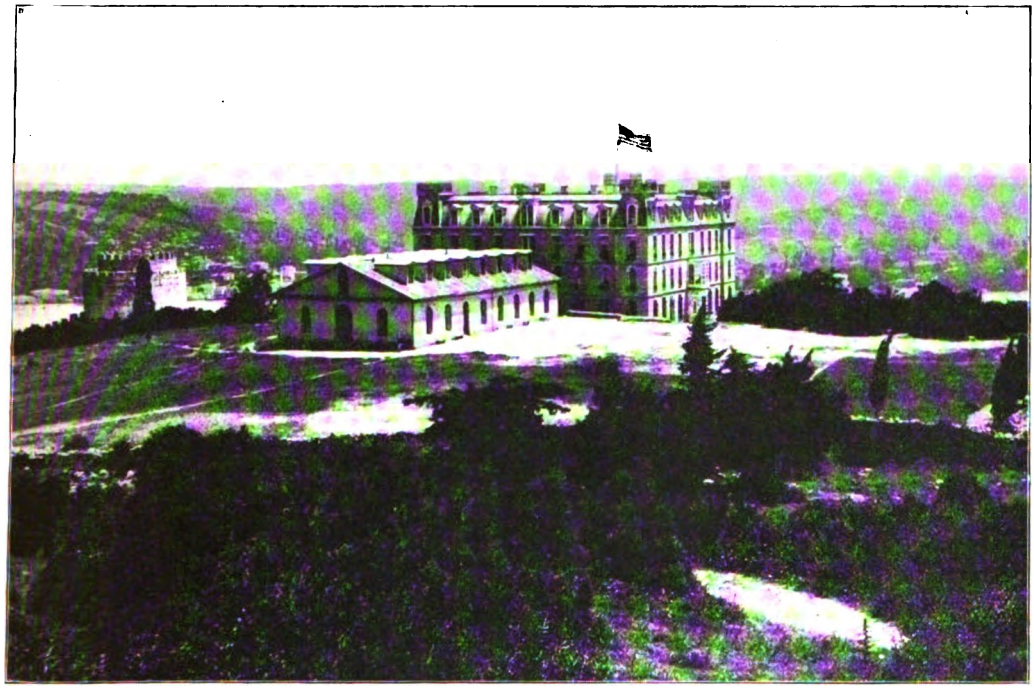
Far from forbidding missionary enterprises, the laws of Turkey seemed positively to favor them; and the Christian priest or pastor has as much right to follow his profession as has the doctor or merchant or lawyer. The *Hatti Humayoun* (Imperial Edict) of 1856 declares that no one shall be disturbed or annoyed because of the religion he professes, and that each sect is at liberty to establish its own schools. The Turkish government has actually boasted that Christian sects within the empire carry on their propaganda "with a freedom which has no limits but the absolute necessities of public order."

Unfortunately, the theory and the practice are far removed. Turkey is always reluctant to grant concessions to any Christian power; and during the last generation the United States has had to ask again and again for the enforcement of clearly stated rights, while of late years the Turkish government has shown an increasing tendency to discriminate against both our government and its citizens.

The immunities now in question depend upon treaty engagements, and can not be modified by any new law of the Ottoman Empire; but when reasonable conditions have been proposed, the United States has cheerfully accepted these requirements as limitations of existing treaties. The trouble is that, after all conditions have been fulfilled, the stipulated privileges are still withheld. For example, private schools will receive authorization from the government only if the text-books, the courses of study and the diplomas of the teachers are approved by the Department of Public Instruction. This is just and reasonable, but, in the case of American schools, after all formalities have been gone through with, the authorization is withheld; and if a school is finally opened without a permit, it is liable to be arbitrarily closed at any time; or, at best, it is subject to aggravating restrictions and petty persecutions of every kind.



ROBERT COLLEGE, CONSTANTINOPLE
The First American College in Turkey

Long ago the American missionaries made application for an imperial *firman* recognizing their school at Marash and granting permission for certain enlargements of the buildings. This school had already fulfilled all the requirements of

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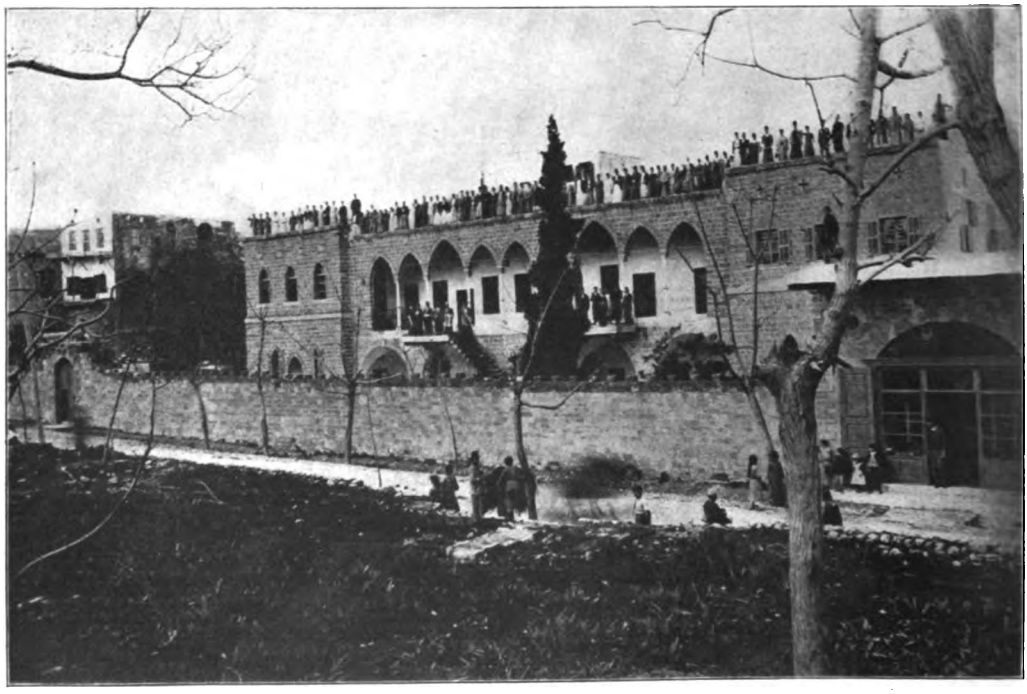
the Department of Public Instruction. The request was endorsed by all the local authorities at Marash, was sent to Constantinople and endorsed by the many bureaus and officials there, was passed upon favorably by the Council of Ministers and the Council of State, and now for nine years has been waiting final action by the Sultan!

Thus, even according to Turkish interpretation of Turkish law and treaties, our schools have been subjected to arbitrary discrimination and oppression. The vizirial circular sent to the United States legation in May, 1889, expressly states that a mission school once opened may not be closed except for lawful reasons; yet many American schools have since been closed, and never for any just cause. Up to ten years ago—and the same is probably true to-day—the United States legation at Constantinople had never heard of a case where "lawful reasons" were adduced for such action.

It would seem that this fact alone ought to silence the ill-informed critics who, from time to time, echo in our newspapers the Turkish plea that American schools are hotbeds of sedition. Such assertions have been disproved so often, and by men of so many different nationalities and religious beliefs, that the question is almost unworthy of serious discussion. Among the thousands of missionaries and teachers in the Ottoman Empire, one or two may now and then be impolitic in their utterances; but the writer who states that American schools in any way teach disloyalty to the existing government is guilty of deliberate falsehood or of equally culpable ignorance.

I speak from personal knowledge when I say that no class in the Turkish Empire is more obedient to the spirit and letter of the law than are the American residents. Moslem merchants, as well as Christian, constantly evade the customs and censorship regulations; but our American presses and schools put themselves to voluntary expense and trouble in order to render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's. In the palaces along the Bosporus, as well as in the hotels of Paris and among the mountains of Albania and Kurdistan, Moslems are plotting against their Moslem ruler; yet the American schools not only refrain from such plotting, but by word and action teach submission to the existing government. In every mission school or



GERARD ACADEMY, SIDON

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DAY PUPILS OF THE BEIRUT FEMALE SEMINARY

college that I have ever visited, seditious teachings are absolutely discountenanced; and a student or instructor who was so unwise as to utter treasonable sentiments or untimely criticisms of the Turkish Empire would be expelled from the institution.

Some years ago the president of one of our colleges in Turkey was severely criticized for his supposed sympathy with the revolutionists; yet his antagonism to insurrectionary movements was so great that, at that very time, his name was on the black list of the revolutionary committee, as one who had better be put out of the way.

Not A Missionary Claim

Our present demands have nothing whatever to do with missionary propaganda, although missionaries happen to be the individuals at present most involved. To speak of "evangelization by warship" shows a puerile ignorance of the question at issue. It has never been illegal for missionaries to enter the Ottoman Empire and to pursue their calling among Ottoman subjects. Proselyting has never been forbidden by any Turkish law, and the United States legation has never had to insist that the Turkish government should admit American teachers and preachers into the empire.

If it were a question of forcing evangelists upon a reluctant people, or of lending the moral support of our government to Catholic or Protestant missionary enterprises, we might well question the advisability of such action; but the missionaries themselves reiterate persistently that their claims must be considered irrespective of any religious aspect of the case. It is not generally understood in America that our teachers and preachers in Turkey disclaim any protection over native Christian communities. They present no personal grievances, although many of them have suffered in person and in property. They ask no government support of any kind for their work as missionaries; but as American citizens they demand a recognition of the lawful rights of property and of institutions managed by them as business concerns.

No one desires to gloss over the fact that these schools are fundamentally missionary, both in the minds of the people in America who provide the funds and in

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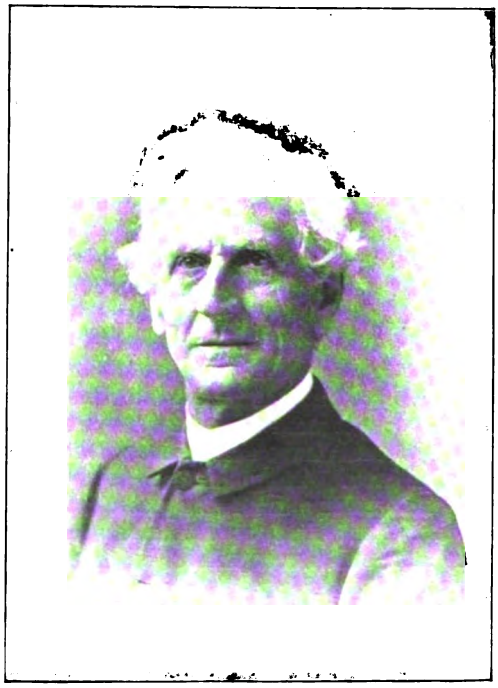
the plans of the teachers who are directing the work, but so far as they come into conflict with Turkish law, and so far as our government is asked to interfere, the schools may be considered as business enterprises. They do far more than teach the Bible and the English language. Even in the primary schools that make up the great majority of the six hundred establishments now under discussion, the secular instruction is always the best that is given in the village. Scores of institutions are of the rank of academies, giving courses that, *mutatis mutandis*, compare well with those offered by our preparatory departments at home. A number are of the rank of colleges: such are Robert College at Constantinople, Central Turkey College at Aintab, Anatolia College at Marsovan, and the International College at Smyrna. The Syrian Protestant College at Beirût is a university with six departments, thirteen buildings, forty-five instructors and nearly eight hundred students. I have seen many colleges in America that are inferior in equipment, faculty and curriculum to the college in Syria; and more than one student who could not pass the examinations in the Beirût medical school has come to America to take an easier medical course in a city not one hundred miles from the Atlantic coast.



DANIEL BLISS
Founder of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut

A further evidence of the claim of our schools to be considered as business concerns could be found in the character of their financial management. The subsidized schools of Russia, Italy and France are so anxious to make proselytes that students are often accepted quite free of charge and pampered to the point of pauperizing them. It has been the policy of American institutions, however, to charge a reasonable amount for tuition, to give no scholarships except in cases of extreme poverty, and then seldom to the full amount of the yearly fees. Even in the little villages, the natives are being educated toward the point of complete support of the local schools; and the annual receipts of the higher institutions are sometimes very large. One college received in a single year nearly $40,000 in fees for tuition and board. Another college has been self-supporting for ten years, and during that time a number of new buildings have been paid for out of the earnings of the institution. This, however, is exceptional. Most of the schools are still in need of funds, and are the more deserving of American support because the money is used for legitimate purposes, and not for bribing boys to make a hypocritical confession of conversion.

The students who attend these educational establishments are not by any means all proselytes to Protestantism or even to Christianity. In the smaller schools the majority of the pupils are Oriental Catholics, while Moslems are frequently enrolled in the larger academies and colleges. Robert College at Constantinople and the Syrian Protestant College at Beirût are incorporated under the laws of the State of New York, and are supported by endowments that render them just as non-sectarian as Harvard or Yale. At Beirût there are to-day nearly a hundred students of the Mohammedan faith. Some of these are sons of Turkish officials, and some are involved in blood feuds with Christian families; yet no class of students is more loyal to their *alma mater*. When the Imperial Commission came from Constantinople to Beirût in 1903,

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they were so delighted with the college that one of the Turkish colonels promised to send his own son to the preparatory department the next year. If there is ever another anti-Christian uprising in Syria, I believe that the safest spot in the city of Beirût will be the American college, which has won the respect of all classes and all religions by its scholarly attainments and its dignified attitude toward the Turkish government.

When it is remembered that the large university, score of colleges and six hundred schools represent an outlay of several million dollars, and draw pupils of all races and creeds, who are so anxious to study under American teachers that they pay two or three times as much as would be charged them at schools of the same nominal grade supported by European nations, it is seen how unfounded is the statement that our teachers in the Turkish Empire are there against the wishes of the people, engaged in offensive proselyting, and allowed to remain in the country only because of the fear of our American fleet.

HOWARD S. BLISS
President of the Syrian Protestant College

As a matter of fact, the average Turk does not know whether the United States has a fleet or not; for the moment we Americans leave the seaboard, we become merely *"Inglezee."* I yield to no one in my admiration for Great Britain; but I have a strong objection to telling Orientals that I am an Englishman just because it takes too long to call myself an American and then answer the inevitable questions as to whether America is in New York or Paraguay.

During the last decade, however, American commerce in the Orient has been making vast strides. Our exports to European Turkey multiplied thirteenfold in six years; and no other country in the world, except our own Philippine possessions, shows so high a percentage of increase in the purchase of American goods. On the other hand, the increase of Turkish exports to the United States during the past five years has been more than the combined increase of such exports to all other nations of the world.

The claims of the mission schools are bound up with principles demanding fair treatment for our commerce; and it is safe to say that continued discrimination against American educational establishments will be an incentive to like discriminations against Americans in every kind of occupation. Any unfriendly action of the Porte is soon known throughout the empire, and serves as an excuse for all kinds of insolence and violence, both to the persons of foreign residents and to their property rights and mercantile enterprises. It was the knowledge of this fact that caused a recent petition to the President on behalf of the American schools to be signed by men who represent some of the largest commercial interests in our country.

Other nations, Protestant as well as Catholic, have already secured for their missionary and charitable institutions in Turkey even greater privileges than those now claimed by the United States. After the seizure of the Island of Mitylene in 1901, France obtained an imperial *iradé* which recognized the legal status of all French schools in Turkey and granted to them the privileges and immunities stipulated by the treaties already in force. This was not a mere promise, made with a view to putting off the day of reckoning, but the provisions of the *iradé* have been enforced throughout the entire empire. As soon as France had received

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these concessions, Russia insisted upon being given all the rights of the most favored nation; then Italy and Germany, and finally Great Britain, in April, 1903, received satisfactory responses to their demands.

A lack of courtesy has also been shown by the Turkish legation at Washington. Chekîb Bey, the nominal minister of the Sublime Porte to the United States, has been here about two years, but he has never been authorized to present his credentials, and our government

RASHID BEY
Vali of Beirut at the time of the Attempted Assassination of Vice-Consul Magelssen

is unable to transact any official business through the Turkish legation.

Last year a suggestion was made to the Sultan that the legations at Washington and Constantinople should be raised to the rank of embassies, so that there might be closer diplomatic relations between the two governments. His Majesty, however, not only declined to consider the proposal, but sent his refusal to our legation in a purposely round-about way, through the Grand Vizier and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and it is rumored that the message to Mr. Leishman was couched in such terms that the officials of the Porte did not dare to translate it literally.

On February 2, 1903, President Roosevelt sent a cable dispatch instructing our minister at Constantinople to request a personal audience with His Majesty, with a view to arranging an early settlement of American claims; yet it was over two months before this audience was granted, and it was a year and a half later that a threatened visit of the American fleet drew a definite reply from the Sultan, after which it was not a week before His Majesty imposed additional restrictions that open the way for all sorts of future delays. It is not pleasant to picture Mr. Leishman's position, as the long-promised interview is at last put off from Tuesday to Thursday, from Thursday to Friday, and is finally granted only after the minister of the United States has been kept waiting half a day in a cold, cheerless antechamber, without even being consoled by the refreshments which Eastern hospitality considers so significant.

Yet the facts that have been stated do not carry the slightest criticism of our present administration, unless it be in the form of a recognition of the way in which American interests in the Orient are now being protected. The East always moves slowly, and along lines that are difficult for the western mind to comprehend or to influence; but Americans abroad, whatever their political creed, are united in praise of the manner in which our State Department is now dealing with a very difficult situation.

It is necessary, however, that we should clearly understand the crux of the present difficulty. The American schools in Turkey ask for no new privileges of any kind; they ask no forcing of missionaries upon an unwilling people or in the face of prohibitory laws; they ask no redress for injuries suffered in the past, and they seek no protection for native converts. Their only demand is for clearly proved and long-established rights that have been recognized through immemorial usage and exactly defined by numerous treaties.

The text of the Turkish government's answer to Mr. Leishman's demands has not yet been made public; but I shall be as much surprised as overjoyed if our claims are really settled before this article gets into print. If any conditions or re-

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strictions whatsoever are imposed, if "customary lists of schools" must be submitted, or if there are "the usual departmental formalities" to be gone through with, or "certain preliminaries to be arranged," it will open up possibilities for another thirty years of delay. Complete lists of the schools have been prepared; all necessary formalities, as interpreted by the Turks themselves, have been gone through with again and again; all preliminary steps prescribed by Turkish law and Turkish idiosyncracy have been taken—and then the papers have been pigeonholed.

There is only one thing that will satisfactorily clear up the present situation: an imperial *iradé* authorizing the immediate issuance of *firmans* for the long-suffering schools. The time seems to have come when we must have a fuller recognition of our rights or jeopardize those which we already enjoy. The attempt upon the life of Vice-Consul Magelssen and the subsequent refusal to bring the real offenders to punishment were but one manifestation of an increasing hostility to the United States. Other American residents have been openly threatened with assassination, and men are parading the streets of some of the greatest Moslem cities singing, "Oh, how pleasant! Oh, how joyful! To cut the Christians' throats!" Not only mission-school charters, but the security of commercial interests, the prestige of our government and perhaps the lives of American citizens may depend upon a firm, though friendly, attitude in our negotiations with the Turkish government, such an attitude, indeed, as is now being maintained by our Department of State.

THE PARTY OF DISCONTENT

BY

CHARLES FERRIS GETTEMY

TWENTY-EIGHT years ago, Thomas Huxley, speaking at the dedication exercises of the Johns Hopkins University, uttered these sobering, prophetic sentences:

> Size is not grandeur, and territory does not make a nation. The great issue, about which hangs a true sublimity, and the terror of overhanging fate is, What are you going to do with all these things? You are making a novel experiment in politics on the greatest scale which the world has yet seen. Forty millions at your first centenary, it is reasonably to be expected that at the second these states will be occupied by two hundred millions of English-speaking people, spread over an area as large as that of Europe, and with climates and interests as diverse as those of Spain and Scandinavia, England and Russia. You and your descendants have to ascertain whether this great mass will hold together under the form of a republic and the despotic reality of universal suffrage; whether state rights will hold out against centralization, without separation; whether centralization will get the better, without actual or disguised monarchy; whether shifting corruption is better than a permanent bureaucracy; and as population thickens in your great cities, and the pressure of want is felt, the gaunt specter of pauperism will stalk among you, and communism and socialism will claim to be heard. Truly America has a great future before her, great in toil, in care, in responsibility; great in true glory if she be guided in wisdom and righteousness; great in shame if she fail. I can not understand why other nations should envy you or be blind to the fact that it is for the highest interest of mankind that you should succeed; but the one condition of success, your sole safeguard, is the moral worth and intellectual clearness of the individual citizen.

It was twelve years after Huxley drew this somber picture that socialism first put in its "claim to be heard" in the United States. Its voice was then so weak as to be scarcely audible. In 1888 the Socialists placed a presidential ticket in the field, nominating electors in but two states and polling only some twenty-eight hundred votes. After the lapse of another twelve years the movement in 1900 polled about one hundred and twenty-six thousand votes, which were scattered through thirty-two states. Two years later the vote rose to over two hundred and sixty-two thousand, and in 1903 eleven states in their "off-year" elections

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had a Socialist vote amounting to nearly one hundred and thirty-two thousand, or about five thousand more than were cast for the presidential candidates in thirty-two states three years before. This year some of the Socialist party leaders are claiming that the Debs and Hanford ticket will poll half a million votes, leaving out of consideration the ticket of the other branch of the Socialist movement, known as the Socialist Labor party. What if this boast should come true? Need there be any serious alarm over it? The Populist party, it is remembered, polled over a million votes in 1892, and, although what is left of it has gone through the form of placing a presidential ticket in the field again this year, it seems clear that the party as a fighting organization has passed away.

Is there anything in the history or creed of the Socialist party in the United States that need cause any serious doubt that it will run its course and disappear as readily as have the Know-Nothing, Greenback, Populist and kindred movements in our politics that have flourished for a brief period upon the prejudices or discontent of large numbers of voters? It must be confessed that there is no unanimity among students and scholars in returning a complacent negative to this question, while the number of those who appreciate the economic significance of the Socialist movement seems to be increasing and their views as to the course it may take in the future are expressed in language which is plainly that of doubt and uncertainty.

"We have pleased ourselves," says Professor J. G. Brooks, "by repeating, parrot-like, 'such socialism as we have in the United States is wholly of foreign origin.' A few years ago this explanation accounted fairly well enough for the facts. No close observer can longer consider it an explanation. The conditions out of which socialism grows are working with increasing power in our midst, and they do not conveniently select those only who speak broken English, or were bred among the 'tyrannies of the old world.'"*

Professor R. T. Ely, while contending with force and reason that the present social order is essentially sound, and that therefore, to use no harsher term, Socialism is needless, makes this remarkable and somewhat startling statement in his most recent book:

*"The Social Unrest." p. 64.

If there is to be a new social order, there is every indication that it will be socialism. By this is meant that the only plan of a society, having large and widespread support on the part of thinkers of capacity, which it is proposed to substitute for existing society, is socialism. The alternative which confronts us, is, then, socialism or social reform.*

Are such radical statements—and they are quotations that may be readily multiplied—the ill-considered utterances of alarmists who have become frightened at shadows and panic-stricken at the frothings of a few anarchists and socialist agitators? Every one who has observed the trend of the labor movement in recent years knows that in the United States, as in Europe, though not as yet to quite as great a degree, it is honeycombed not merely with socialistic ideas, but with acceptance of the whole doctrine of unadulterated continental socialism, the socialism of Marx, and Engel, and Lassalle. Mr. Gompers may make speeches in eloquent criticism of the socialist philosophy, as he did at the convention of the American Federation of Labor in Boston a year ago; John Mitchell, Henry White, and other able and conservative labor leaders, may bring to bear all the influence of which they are capable against its spread in their organizations; and the Federation of Labor may continue for a time to reject socialistic resolutions; yet numerous national trade-union bodies affiliated with Mr. Gompers' federation have explicitly committed themselves to the Socialist platform and one whole section of the labor movement, the Western American Labor Union, is pledged to it.

But let us look at the Socialist threat soberly. It is no part of the writer's object here to refute fallacies; much less does he hold a brief for the Socialist party. His purpose is, while refraining from any attempt to discuss the philosophy of socialism, to point out what is actually happening in the field of American politics as the result of the socialist attempt to concentrate discontent at the ballot-box.

If two sets of comparisons be made of the socialistic vote in the United States since it first entered national politics by nominating an electoral ticket in two states in the presidential campaign of

*"Studies in the Evolution of Industrial Society," p. 461.

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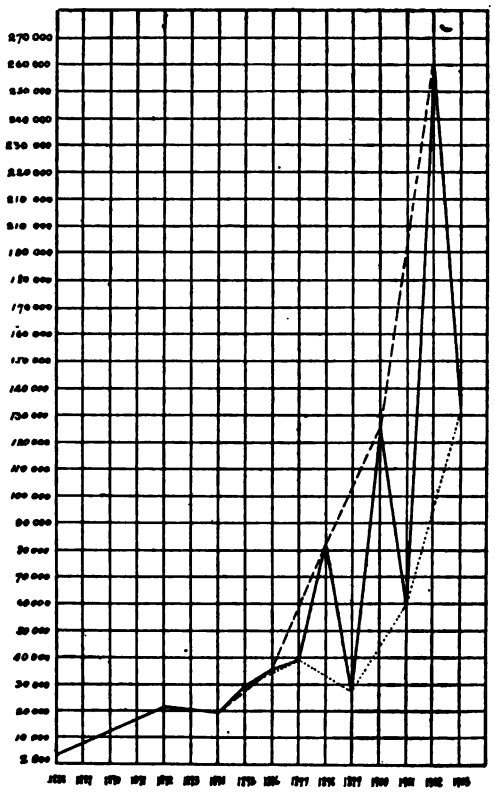
1888, using as the basis of one the presidential and congressional years (designated for the sake of convenience the "even years"), and of the other the years in which elections for various state officers are held in some of the states (designated the "off years"), we have the following exhibit:

* THE SOCIALIST VOTE IN THE UNITED STATES.

EVEN YEARS.	OFF YEARS.
1888– 2 states, 2,808.	
1892– 5 states, 21,164.	1895– 5 states, 28,738.
1894– 4 states, 19,564.	1897– 8 states, 39,311.
1896–20 states, 36,274	1899– 7 states, 26,755.
1898–19 states, 83,519.	1901– 8 states, 59.501.
1900–32 states, 126,445.	1903–11 states, 131,928.
1902–31 states, 262,281.	

The distribution of this vote and the growth of socialistic sentiment are reflected in the election returns of states widely separated geographically, and with populations agricultural as well as industrial. While the Socialist vote has fluctuated, this fact can not be uniformly explained on the theory of the supposed importance or lack of importance of given elections. Up to 1902 the Socialists had not, with hardly an exception, failed to recover in a succeeding election any ground they may have lost in any particular year. In other words, there has not yet occurred an exception in the general upward tendency of this vote sufficiently noteworthy to indicate that the Socialist party has, up to the present time, suffered any serious setback. In Massachusetts 29,812 Socialist votes were cast in 1903; this was ten thousand less than the Socialist vote of the year before, but it was ten thousand more than that of the preceding "off year," when no such abnormal conditions as were produced, in 1902, by the anthracite strike, were operating to swell artificially the vote for candidates representing the extreme of radical ideas. But it is noteworthy that while this great increase in the Socialist vote in Massachusetts was popularly and correctly attributed to the anthracite strike, and the falling off in 1903 was therefore to be expected, there was no such decrease in the vote in the neighboring state of New York; there the Socialist and the Socialist Labor party polled, in the election of 1903, a combined vote for their candidates for associate justice of the Court of Appeals, of over forty-four thousand, which was five thousand more than the two parties polled for their candidates for governor in the preceding—the coal strike—year.



THE SOCIALIST VOTE, 1888-1903

The black line traces the fluctuations of the vote irrespective of its distribution through few or many states; the upper dotted line traces the progress of the vote in the congressional years when state elections are general, the lower dotted line in "off years," when elections are held in a few states for local officers.

Taking the vote for the two socialistic parties as a whole, however, in those states which held elections in 1903, there was a falling off from what may certainly in some respects be regarded as the abnormal vote of 1902. But it appears that the Socialists in the state campaigns a year ago had candidates for state offices in eleven states and polled an aggregate

*There are two parties in the United States professing the principles of socialism. One calls itself where it can do so legally, the "Socialist" party, but in New York and Wisconsin it is obliged under the law to take the name "Social Democratic" party. The other branch, and in reality the parent of the movement in this country, is known as the "Socialist Labor" party. The latter is much the smaller and appears to be in rapid process of absorption by the "Socialist" party. The two organizations, while bitterly hostile as to methods, are identical in fundamentals and aims, hence where both have had candidates in the field the vote for the two has been combined in the tables here given, since the purpose is to show the growth and present status of the movement as a whole. The vote in presidential years, unless otherwise stated, is for presidential electors; in other years for the principal candidate on the state ticket. The figures are based upon the election returns as given in "The World" almanac.

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of nearly one hundred and thirty-two thousand votes, as against about sixty thousand polled for their candidates in the preceding "off year" elections of 1901, when they had tickets in eight states. One can hardly feel warranted, in the face of these facts, in assuming with positiveness that the loss sustained by the Socialist party in Massachusetts and some other states in the elections a year ago is destined to be permanent and can fairly be interpreted as foreshadowing the early dissolution of the movement.

But whatever the ultimate fate of the Socialist party and however soon it may be destined to perish or be absorbed in some other movement, a comparison of its history up to the present moment, with the careers of other "third" parties in American politics, makes it evident that it can not properly be dismissed with those others as a mere mushroom growth. Let us examine briefly the facts of the record.

1. The Free Soil movement, which was not in existence in the presidential campaign of 1844, cast for its candidate for president, four years later, two hundred and ninety-two thousand votes, and, in 1852, one hundred and fifty-two thousand, electing meanwhile several members of Congress. Then it died out, or, to speak more accurately, became absorbed in the rising Republican party.

2. The period from 1848 to 1856 was one of disintegration and reorganization in the history of political parties in the United States. In this transition stage the American, or Know-Nothing, party arose. It was without question the most perfect type of "mushroom" growth in our politics, for it reached the climax of its strength at the polls and its influence in the nation in the very first election in which it appeared. Unheard of before 1854, it cast in that year one hundred and twenty-two thousand votes for its candidate for governor in New York; it elected members of the Legislature in Pennsylvania; it carried, in coalition with the "anti-Nebraska" men, Indiana and Ohio; and in Massachusetts its success was overwhelming. In the last-mentioned commonwealth it elected a state government, its candidate for governor polling eighty-one thousand votes and having a plurality of fifty-four thousand; the Legislature was composed almost unanimously of "Know-Nothings," and so was the congressional delegation. By May, of 1855, the New York *Herald* estimated the new party's strength in the nation at one million three hundred and seventy-five thousand. But it had already passed the zenith of its popularity. It was longer in losing its hold entirely in Massachusetts than elsewhere, but its decline by easy stages was steady until, after polling fourteen thousand in 1859, it disappeared altogether. The dwindling of the "Know-Nothing" vote in Massachusetts from its large beginning is interesting for the contrast it furnishes to the history of the steadily increasing Socialist vote in the same state, as seen in the table above given.

3. The Greenback party, which began to obtain favor after the financial disturbances of 1873, appeared in the presidential election of 1876 with eighty-one thousand votes, which were increased to three hundred and eight thousand in 1880. Four years later, what was practically the same movement, in the form of General Butler's "People's" and "Anti-monopoly" party, dropped in its voting strength to one hundred and seventy-four thousand. In the election of 1888, after polling one hundred and forty-six thousand votes as the "Union Labor" party, it lost its identity. Then came the Populists.

4. As the "Union Labor" party had crystalized the floating discontent chiefly of the wage-earning classes, so the Populist party, which now came forward and which was destined quickly to become the most formidable of all minor party movements in our history, represented essentially the discontent of the agrarian population. The Populists first began to make themselves felt in the elections of 1890, when, in eight states, they cast over three hundred and four thousand votes. Two years later they placed electoral tickets in the field in nearly every state in the union and their presidential candidate polled over one million forty thousand votes; in 1894 the Populist party was still growing, for it polled in that year over one million five hundred and sixty thousand votes, though it must be remembered that this vote represented complete fusion in several states with either the Democratic

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or the Republican party. In 1896 this fusion was still more widespread, the Populist party uniting with the Democratic party upon Bryan and reducing the straight Populist vote approximately to one hundred and fifty thousand. Since then the Populists, while they have not entirely abandoned their separate organizations in some of the western states and have even once more nominated a presidential ticket, have practically ceased to exist as an appreciable element in elections. The Prohibitionists have had a longer party history than any other minor party in American politics, but, with the exception of the campaign of 1884, they have hardly made an impression on the course of affairs. While they have steadily maintained a national organization and have a remarkable internal vitality the party shows little, if any, positive growth or symptoms of ever becoming even a temporary menace to either of the great parties.

It will be observed from this survey that the "Know-Nothing" party survived only one presidential election; the Greenback party lived through two; the Union Labor party died after a single campaign, and the Populist party, if the year 1896 be included in its chronology, may be said to have survived two national campaigns. As a part of this record, it is to be noted that in the Thirty-sixth Congress the "Know-Nothing" party had 5 Senators and 23 Representatives; the Greenback party had 7 Representatives in the Forty-third Congress, 2 in the Forty-fourth and 1 in the Forty-fifth; the Populist party, partly through fusion, elected 2 Senators and 8 Representatives to the Fifty-second Congress, 3 Senators and 8 Representatives to the Fifty-third Congress, and 5 Senators and 16 Representatives to the Fifty-fifth Congress.

There is almost no point of similarity in the history of the Socialist party in the United States and the record of these other third-party movements. That party has not reached its present proportions in nearly so short a time as sufficed for each of the others to attain a degree of strength which made them truly a menace for at least the time being to one or the other of the leading old parties. It has failed as yet to elect a governor or a single Congressman or even a considerable number of members of state Legislatures, though it has chosen a few mayors and members of city governments in various parts of the country. Nevertheless, it will have survived after the present campaign five national elections. Other parties which have stood for a single idea or which have in their birth and rise to power reflected popular discontent, have increased rapidly in numbers and, after a few emphatic successes at the polls, have passed completely out of existence either by an unconscious dissipation of their membership among other minor parties, or by a more or less conscious fusion with one of the great parties. The Socialist party alone has had a slow and gradual progress from insignificant beginnings. Whatever one may think of its propaganda or its future course, the impartial student of political movements can not avoid the conviction that it has reached its present proportions by normal and steady growth.

Whether this exceptional character of the Socialist party's history shall have particular and serious significance attached to it depends largely upon the degree of appreciation there may be of the fundamental antagonism that exists between this party's professed principles and those of all other parties, great or small, that have appealed for the suffrages of the people. None of these has ever been a menace to the existing social order, or, in the bitterest of partisan strife, consciously sought to disrupt the peace of organized society by revolution. It is not easy, it must be acknowledged, even in the midst of the present pressing nature of industrial problems, to conceive of the socialists and labor agitators acquiring such influence in the direction of political affairs as to make the possibility of their uniting a majority of American voters in support of their platforms an immediate cause for alarm. Shall we then, in complacent desire to satisfy our self-conceit, wrap ourselves in the mantle of the Pharisee and give thanks that we are not as other nations, forgetful that in America men bent on a revolution at the ballot-box need not spend years, as they have been compelled to do in the old world, in obtaining the rudimentary privileges of free speech, a free press and manhood suffrage?

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WHAT PARTY DO IMMIGRANTS JOIN?

BY

CHARLES M. HARVEY

ASSOCIATE EDITOR, "GLOBE-DEMOCRAT," ST. LOUIS

SOMETHING over twenty-one million immigrants settled in the United States between 1821, when the tally first began to be made, and 1904; five million two hundred and forty-six thousand of them came in the decade ending with 1890, three million eight hundred and forty-four thousand in that ending with 1900, and, from the indications of the past four years, more than six millions will have arrived in the decade which will close with 1910.

To which party do the majority of the immigrants go? The Democracy received the bulk of them previous to 1854. The Republican party, born in that year, has had the support of a considerable proportion of them from that day onward.

The alien and sedition laws, passed by a Federalist Congress in 1798, signed by a Federalist President, John Adams, and fiercely fought by the Democrats under Jefferson's and Madison's lead, did more than defeat Adams in 1800, elect Jefferson and start the Federalist party on the road to extinction. They put the great body of the immigrants in the Democratic party, and formed the habits which have kept a large portion of them there ever since. These statutes, some of which soon expired by their own limitation and the others of which were repealed by the Democrats, helped the latter in another way. The drift of the foreigners to the Democracy incited an anti-foreign spirit in politics, culminating in the Know-Nothingism of 1853-58, which was directed against all foreigners, but particularly against the Roman Catholics, who were arriving in large numbers about that time, on account of the Irish potato famine of 1846-47. The nativists under their various names were drawn chiefly from the Whigs, and were resolutely fought by the Democrats.

Right here the Kansas-Nebraska territorial bill, a Democratic measure, framed by Douglas and signed by Pierce, in 1854, sweepingly changed the current of national politics by repealing the Missouri compromise of 1820, thus throwing the territories open to slavery. This killed the Whig party and created the Republican party on the issue of the preservation of the territories for freedom.

While the Know-Nothingism of that day, which assailed the Catholics chiefly, kept most of the Irish in the Democratic party, the Republican party's championship of the cause of freedom appealed powerfully to the Germans, who, because of their drift to the United States about that time on account of the failure of their rebellions of 1848-49, had become by 1854 an important element of the American voting population, most of the Germans being Protestants. A large majority of the Germans, especially in the West, went into the Republican party. The Irish and the Germans were the only foreigners in the United States in those days of any numerical consequence. Not till 1870 did the Scandinavians begin to come in any considerable numbers, while the Russian, Polish, Bohemian and Italian in-pour did not start until a few years ago.

A list prepared by the Cincinnati *Gazette* in 1854 showed that of the eighty-eight German papers then in the United States, eighty were against the Kansas-Nebraska act. The American and Foreign Anti-slavery Society, at its meeting in New York in 1854, adopted the following resolution: "That we rejoice in the

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great unanimity manifested by the German presses and our German fellow citizens throughout the country in opposition to the Nebraska scheme, so inimical to their democratic principles, to their cherished hopes, and to the renown of their adopted country."

While the Irish continued to vote the Democratic ticket the great majority of the Germans became Republicans. Among the Republican leaders in the party's early days were Carl Schurz, Frederick Kapp, Francis Lieber, Dr. Emil Pretorius and other well-known German-Americans. As, unlike the Irish, the bulk of the Germans settled in the West, that section's partisan attitude was quickly changed. Ohio, Michigan, Wisconsin and Iowa had been carried by the Democrats constantly from the beginning except that Ohio went to its favorite son Harrison, Whig, in 1836 and 1840, and to Clay, Whig, in 1844, and Michigan went to Harrison in 1840. All these states were carried by Fremont, Republican, in 1856. Lincoln carried every western state in 1860, including Indiana, which had been Democratic all along until then, save in 1836 and 1840, when it declared for its old territorial governor, Harrison; Illinois and California, which had been Democratic without a break till that year.

Although the domestic migration westward had been on lines of latitude chiefly, many New Englanders and New Yorkers moving into the states north of the Ohio, yet the swing of the Germans away from the Democracy and over to the new party of freedom was the factor which turned the scale in the West decisively in favor of the Republicans.

Nor was the Germans' influence restricted to the free states. Said Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, in a speech in the Senate two weeks after Buchanan's election in 1856: "In the city of St. Louis nearly three thousand Germans, to show their devotion to liberty, went to the ballot boxes, when they could get up no state ticket for Fremont, and voted for Millard Fillmore, the Know-Nothing candidate, with the word 'Protest' printed on their ballots." They could not vote for Fremont, because the Republican party did not get an organization in Missouri until 1857. Lincoln got seventeen thousand votes in Missouri in 1860, nearly twice as many as in all the rest of the slave states. Missouri was the only slave state which had any considerable number of foreigners in its population. Lincoln, in 1860, got nearly ten thousand votes, most of them cast by Germans, in St. Louis County, which included the City of St. Louis as well as the present county of that name, or more than any other candidate, although Douglas carried the state.

German hostility to the militarism charged against Grant, sent many of that element into the Liberal Republican revolt, of which Carl Schurz was one of the leaders, in 1872, and into an alliance with the Democrats. With them in breaking away from the Republicans, and for a like reason, went many Scandinavians, militarism being one of the things which sent those races out of their home land into the United States. Most of the seceders, however, came back to the Republicans in the Hayes canvass. Mr. Schurz was on the stump for Hayes, and was made Secretary of the Interior in the Hayes cabinet.

Blaine's pro-Irish attitude in and out of Congress brought hundreds of thousands of Irish Democrats to the Republicans' side when he was a candidate for President in 1884. He changed the appearance of the campaign processions. It was remarked at the time, in New York, Boston and Chicago, that, aside from the banners and transparencies, Cleveland's parades had a Republican look, while Blaine's bore a Democratic aspect. For once, Kelly's, Croker's and Murphy's Tammany found its sway over the Irish in New York repudiated.

In that 1884 canvass the second of the great revolts of naturalized citizens against the Republican party took place, the Mugwump secession from the Republicans being participated in by a large number of Germans (among whom was Carl Schurz) and Scandinavians, East and West, on account of the scandals with which Blaine's name had been connected. This defection, coupled with the backward swing of many Irish because of Burchard's "rum, Romanism and rebellion" outburst at a Blaine gathering a few days before the election, defeated the Republicans. The bogus Murchison letter in 1888, which the British minister in Washington was beguiled into writing in favor

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of Cleveland, was incited by the Republicans' desire to utilize the anti-English prejudices of the Irish, and probably turned many votes of that element away from Cleveland and over to Harrison. Cleveland thought it did. Acting on a suggestion by Patrick A. Collins, of Boston, and others of Irish birth or descent, he gave the minister his passports.

The devotion to sound money by the Swedes, Norwegians and Germans assisted in keeping the Republicans of the West from being swept into the greenback sea which ingulfed Morton, Logan and many other native-born Republicans, and which for a time almost swamped robust old John Sherman, in 1869-75. The same steadying influence helped to tie the western Republicans to the anchorage of financial sanity when the Mayflower's passengers' descendants in Kansas, Nebraska and Colorado were floundering in the bog of populism and silverism in 1892-99. Carl Schurz, in his pendulum-swings between the parties, was carried back into monetary affiliation with the Republicans in 1896 by the silver menace.

In the recent party divisions most of the foreign-born citizens are evidently on the Republican side, although a majority, a steadily diminishing majority, of the Irish are still Democrats, and a large proportion of the French Canadians, the Russians, the Italians and the Poles are with them, especially in New York City, where Tammany's naturalization mill has been particularly busy in the past few years. In the sixteen ex-slave states, where the foreign-born population in the aggregate comprises only three per cent of the inhabitants, the Democracy is in the ascendant, except that the Republicans have been carrying Delaware, Maryland and West Virginia in the past few years. On the other hand, in the states where the proportion of the foreigners, running up to 35.4 per cent in North Dakota, is large, the Republicans are usually or always in the preponderance.

In one or both of the Congresses of 1901-05, Patterson, of Colorado; Naphen, of Massachusetts; Cooney, of Missouri, and Cramer, of New York, all born in Ireland, are Democrats; while McMillan, of Michigan; Nelson, of Minnesota; Millard, of Nebraska; Jones, of Nevada; Gallinger, of New Hampshire; Sewall, of New Jersey; Simon, of Oregon; Wetmore, of Rhode Island; Kearns, of Utah; Kahn and McLachlan, of California; Henderson, of Iowa; McCleary, of Minnesota; Bartholdt, of Missouri; Storm and Hanbury, of New York; Burk, of Pennsylvania; Sutherland, of Vermont; Hughes, of West Virginia, and Jenkins, of Wisconsin, are, or were, Republicans. The birthplaces of these were Germany, England, Scotland, France or Canada, except that in Sewall's case it was Ireland.

Opposition to militarism, imperialism and to their attendant heavy expenditures in government, appeals to many foreign-born as well as native citizens. Possibly these issues will take away some of the Republicans' old-time German and Scandinavian supporters. On these issues Carl Schurz, in 1904, as in 1900, is with the Democrats. The fear, however, that Democratic success would assail the gold standard is probably keeping most of Mr. Schurz's countrymen in line for the Republicans. Then, too, the Republican party's devotion to the tariff and to liberal appropriations by the government for public improvements, which create a demand for labor at good wages, has a strong attraction for many naturalized as well as other voters.

President Roosevelt's personality counts for much, with foreign-born citizens as well as others, in favor of his party. This has brought to the Republican side the Boston *Pilot*, the oldest and one of the most influential of Irish and Catholic papers, whose editor, James Jeffrey Roche, is well known in literary circles. Patrick Ford, of the *Irish World*, of New York, a Republican of many years' standing, is working actively for the party, and so is John F. Kearney, of the *Irish Nationalist*, of the same city, while John F. Finerty, of the *Citizen*, of Chicago, is as stalwart and active on the Republican side as ever. Roosevelt, in 1904, is dividing the Irish vote nearer the middle than any other non-Democratic candidate ever did except Blaine, in 1884.

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"MOTHER AND CHILD"
By George De Forest Brush

THE AMERICAN WOMAN IN ART

BY

DELIA AUSTRIAN

ART is something more than making pictures. An artist is an interpreter. Dominated though American art has been by European influences, it has recognized that externals are not everything and that the real world is within the artist's own mind. Especially is this true in portrait painting. It may be an open question whether the photographer is not becoming an artist in the true sense of the word, but it is hard to see how the most skilful and sympathetic photographer can be quite as truly an interpreter as an equally competent painter. To a far higher degree he is at the mercy of his subject, restrained by the

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exigencies of light and camera. A group of painted portraits has a value which is greater than that of the beauty or the technic which they exhibit. Born of the interpretative power of the artist they are even sociological. Who has failed to appreciate the temper of the Renaissance as he has studied the faces of the innumerable Florentine men and women of the great galleries? Unconsciously, as well as intentionally, the portrait painters of an age give us the spirit of that age as truly as does the poet or the philosopher.

Is there developing among us a genuine American type? There are, of course, Americans of English, German, Irish, Jewish descent; in fact, to be an American has ceased to be in any real sense a matter of descent. As Boston has been described as not so much a place as a state of mind, so "American" is less an ethnographical description than a matter of temperament and outlook.

PORTRAIT OF MRS. FLETCHER WEBSTER
By Francis Alexander (1800-1880)

What does the painter, the interpreter of spirit, say to such a hypothesis? And in particular, does the portrait painter see in American women elements which can in some way be said to be expressive of

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PORTRAIT OF MRS. RICHARD DERBY
By J. S. Copley (1737-1815)
Copyright, 1903, by William Sumner Appleton

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THE OLD GOWN
By Frederick W. Freer

a spirit already made and still in the making? How far are economic and social changes finding expression in personality?

Few persons who have studied any considerable collection of portraits have failed to be impressed with the contrast between the portraits of American women on the canvases of Sargent, Alexander, Chartran, Duran and Zorn, and those of Stuart and Trumbull, Reynolds, Gainsborough and Romney. It is not merely the personal equation of the artist that makes the contrast, though that can not be disregarded. It is a different type of life bespeaking other and new social environments. The grand lady of revolutionary times is after all not the American woman of to-day.

There is no better interpreter of the spirit of modern life than John S. Sargent. However sharply he has been criticized for his daring method, he is admittedly something more than a copier of picturesque hats, artistic frocks, priceless jewels and pretty faces. Beneath these exteriors he finds the soul of his subjects. He will not idealize, he will not flatter; he is an interpreter. Any one familiar with his pictures can recall some in which the first impression is almost that of a fashion plate. Some of his women are almost vulgar in their gorgeousness, yet where there is vulgar display it is used by the artist as symbolical of a vulgar soul, and no man is more relentless than Sargent in converging all the elements of his portraits upon the interpretation of a soul. It is for this reason that so many of his portraits of American women show something of that nervous strain which results from fashionable life, as his portraits of American men show the tremendous strain of commercial life. Yet his portraits are full of vitality and earnestness. You could not conceive Sargent representing the American woman as a peaceful goddess twining flowers. She is the creature of duties and of action. And yet duties and nervous strain are not seen by him as the inevitable enemies of charm, or of contentment. Especially

PORTRAIT OF MISS C.
By Martha S. Baker

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"MOTHER"
By Scott Clifton Carpi

does this seem true in those portraits in which he represents a mother surrounded by her children. You would never infer from such pictures as those of Mrs. Fred Warren or of Mrs. Carl Meyer that club life or social duties were destructive of the home.

Though a Swede by birth, Zorn has produced many portraits of American women. It may be the subjects which he has painted are especially happy, and it may be that unconsciously he has put on canvas something of his own strong personality, but his portraits especially show capacity for achievement. Physically, as well as mentally, his women are full of vitality and force. Nor is it a matter of chance that in his picture of Mrs. Crane, now hanging at St. Louis, and in his well-known portrait of Mrs. Potter Palmer, he has shown that beauty and womanly dignity are not destroyed by this capacity for achievement.

Many French artists have painted American women, but none more sympathetically than Chartran. And probably most remarkable among his studies is his portrait of Mrs. Roosevelt. Here again, as in all the artist's portraits, we have the insistence upon that which is essentially womanly. Chartran in other portraits of American women has seen the same characteristics as he portrays in Mrs. Roosevelt. Social or official position are seen by him to be after all but secondary to the personality. And if that personality be full of sweetness and earnestness, his portraits become almost a benediction. But he has painted the American woman of a different and less attractive type!

It is John W. Alexander, however, who especially emphasizes the moral idealism of the American woman. In fact many of his studies might almost be called those of moral moods. In his portraits, color has possibly even a stronger value than

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"CONSOLATION"
By Frederick W. Freer

with any of the other artists and he very properly has given them impersonal names. Through all of his work, whether it be genuine portrait or studies, there runs a trace of pre-Raphaelite asceticism. They suggest ideals, or the idealization of particular traits. Whereas in Zorn's portraits one feels physical strength and intellectual power, in Sargent's women one gets the hint of the physical strain of American life. Would his beautiful girls endure the struggle to which their moral earnestness must bring them?

It remains for Abbott Thayer, DeForest Brush and Frederick Freer to show particularly the attitude of the American woman toward motherhood. Alexander's portraits of mother and child belong to the world of wealth. Those painted by these other artists belong rather to the larger world which knows neither wealth nor poverty. Possibly, too, there is in the work of these three men a clearer recognition of the problems of motherhood. The "Mother and Child" of Abbott Thayer suggests Raphael's "Madonna di San Sisto." Her countenance is careworn, though without suggestion of dis-

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PORTRAIT OF MRS. THEODORE ROOSEVELT
By Chartran
Copyright, 1902, by Frances B. Johnston

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"MOTHER AND CHILDREN"
By George De Forest Brush

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"THE POT OF BASIL"
By John W. Alexander

content, and is full of that compassion and understanding so few painters of women are able to suggest.

DeForest Brush emphasizes particularly the domestic traits which mark the well-to-do, but not ultra fashionable classes. His models, though often frail, are also contented. They have no great ambition, but you can see they love their children and their children love them.

Though Frederick Freer has painted many delightful studies, he is best known by his "Mother and Child" and "The Picture Book," in both of which the note of domesticity is genuine and convincing.

Whistler's magnificently filial tribute to his mother is universally known, but a more recent and equally loyal tribute to a mother's life is that of Carpi. His "Mother" is possibly more vital, if one may use the term, than the figure of Whistler's masterpiece, but there is in it, as in the other, the testimony to a true life and the recollection of a mother's devotion. Whenever the artist speaks of this work he says: "It is my mother's

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even stronger. There is the promise of repose in the portraits of the younger American women of a hundred years ago. Their faces, it is true, lack the vivacity which is already making the American woman the rival of the French, but they also lack the shadow of overactivity. One needs only to look at one of Trumbull's portraits to appreciate these differences. The early American woman had fewer interests and fewer duties. All the revolutionary portraits show that she had time to rest. In some way you

PORTRAIT OF MRS. W.
By George de Mare

work, not mine. She was sweet, pure and happy, and I only depicted her as she was."

When we compare the portraits of Sargent, Chartran and the others with these of elder women, the question is inevitably suggested whether these younger women can possibly enjoy an old age like this portrayed by Whistler and Carpi. The nervous strain to which they testify raises many a doubt. And if we compare these portraits of modern women with those of Stuart and Trumbull this doubt grows

PORTRAIT OF MISS H.
By George de Mare

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PORTRAIT OF MRS. CARL MEYER
By John S. Sargent
Courtesy of *The Studio*, London

never associate nervous prostration with Stuart's women! So, too, the women whom Romney painted in the eighteenth century. They are picturesque, sometimes even beautiful. His popular work, "The Parson's Daughter," is full of sweetness and gentility—if one may use an old-fashioned word—but she would never be mistaken for an American woman.

Thus taken altogether, if the portrait painters are to be trusted, the American woman is not the woman of colonial America or yet of Europe. She has kept pace with the progress of her land and has shared in its changing ideals. In her case physical strength has its origin in nervous resource and her beauty is one of expression quite as truly as physical. It is in her family that the painter judges her most genuinely herself, and it is as a mother that he finds her possessed of most content.

Even more does one appreciate the emergence of a really American type when one compares these modern portraits with those of the great English masters. The English woman of a hundred years or more ago looks as if she lived out of doors, not as an athlete, but as one devoted to fields and flowers. The Duchess of Devonshire, whom Reynolds loved to paint, certainly lived in a different world from that of the women of Sargent and Alexander—a world of fashion and culture, but not a world of haste.

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ARBOR LODGE, THE HOME OF THE MORTONS

WHO IS MORTON?

A HOUSE PARTY FOR THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY

BY

FRANK H. SPEARMAN

AUTHOR OF "THE NERVE OF FOLEY," "HELD FOR ORDERS," ETC.

WHEN a new naval secretary was recently chosen by President Roosevelt an American admiral in the Orient, receiving orders signed "Morton," cabled Washington from the eastern waters asking: "Who is Morton?"

He made a perfectly natural inquiry. In Washington official life little is known of the West, and Chicago is undeniably western. Never before had a President of the United States ventured farther into the interior than Indiana for a Secretary of the Navy, and Indiana, after George Ade and John and George McCutcheon, no longer admits being western. Indiana has shaken off the ashes and taken her place among the elect; apparently Illinois is the "Cinderella" next in line.

Paul Morton, now Secretary of the Navy, is a Chicago man; officially, he has been for some time second vice-president of the Santa Fe railroad in charge of traffic; but by association and through early years, Mr. Morton is a Nebraskan. His first studies in navigation were made near Nebraska City in floating mud pies on the Missouri River.

On the outskirts of Nebraska City stands the famous old home of the Mortons, Arbor Lodge. Those who know the

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men of the Morton family think of them all together. J. Sterling Morton died in 1902. He had four sons: Joy, Paul, Mark and Carl. The three elder brothers now represent the family, and in honor of the naval secretary, Mr. Joy and Mr. Mark Morton gave a dinner recently at Arbor Lodge, the old Nebraska home. It was only a dinner and a house party, but it was in several ways an unusual affair.

A special train of private cars left Chicago over the Burlington one evening for Arbor Lodge. The cars included President Ripley's, of the Santa Fe; President Felton's, of the Alton; President Shonts', of the Clover Leaf, and Vice-President Miller's, of the Burlington; in addition, a Pullman compartment car was carried.

On this train were four railroad presidents and, including the new head of the navy, four railroad vice-presidents, representing fifty thousand miles of American railroads. It was a holiday company, a business men's outing, a play-spell for men of action, and it is rarely that men who are known in the world for the things these men have done and are doing to-day, get together in such numbers for any sort of a trip. Here was young Benjamin Winchell, president of the largest system of railroads in the world—the Rock Island; President Ripley, who has made the Santa Fe what it is to-day and at whose right hand Mr. Paul Morton has stood so long; President Felton, the man that rebuilt the Alton and one of the foremost living railroad constructionists; President Shonts, who gives the big transportation combines so many uneasy quarter-hours with his lively little roads; Vice-President Miller, Jim Hill's personal representative on the Burlington and traffic chief of all the Hill lines, who makes rates over his own lines from Chicago to Hongkong, and lastly Mr. Paul Morton's own coöperating vice-presidents on the Santa Fe, Mr. Kenna, of the legal department, and Mr. Kendrick, at the head of operations.

But there were other Chicago men: in transportation, Vice-President Antisdel, of the American Express Company, was there; in art, Daniel H. Burnham, the man whose genius built the World's Fair —who to-day has on his books more work than any other architect in the world; in industry, John G. Shedd, the partner of Marshall Field, representing the largest dry goods house in the world ever owned by individuals; Mr. Edward E. Ayer, who has cut more timber for railroad ties than any other man in the world and who is loud in his pleading to the companies to use treated ties in order that American forest reserves be not wholly destroyed—who is noted not only for his business ability, but for his collection of Indian curios, his collection of Egyptian curios, his library of Americana and his pursuits of a philosophical life; with him was his partner, Mr. J. B. Lord. There were present, also, Mr. W. J. Chalmers, the man who chiefly has developed the modern business of mining by machinery and whose company sells American machinery in every country on the globe where mining is followed; Mr. George Merryweather, the western representative of the anthracite collieries of Coxe Brothers & Co., and president of the Caxton Club, devoted to rare books—himself a bookworm and book-lover; Mr. J. R. Morron, vice-president of the Diamond Glue Company, one of Chicago's brightest young men. Mr. W. S. Eddy, president of the Michigan Salt Association; Mr. E. A. Potter, president of the American Trust and Savings Bank of Chicago, and Mr. Joy Morton, chief representative in the western country of the International Salt Company, and interested in many other large companies, made up the rest of the Chicago party. A company such as this might be called an aristocracy of action; a free-masonry, so to say, of brains.

In addition to these guests there were represented at the dinner on Saturday night the friends of J. Sterling Morton, who in his life did so much for Nebraska. There were ex-Governor Robert W. Furnas, who for over forty years was the colaborer of Sterling Morton in everything calculated to promote the agriculture and horticulture of Nebraska and the great West; Dr. George L. Miller, nestor to-day of Nebraska Democracy, some-time editor of the Omaha *Herald*, and for fifty years a prominent Nebraska journalist; Senator Joseph H. Millard; ex-Senator Charles H. Manderson; Congressman G. M. Hitchcock; Judge W. D. McHugh, one of the leading members of the Omaha bar; Judge George B. Lake,

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former chief justice of the state; George W. Holdrege, the man who has grown bronzed with the cares of general manager of all the Burlington lines west of the Missouri River, who has stood steadfastly and with railroad courage against droughts, Populists, grasshoppers and chinch bugs. Mr. Lucius Wakely, the new general passenger agent of the Burlington in Nebraska, was there, and beside him sat honest J. O. Phillippi, who, through good rates and bad, has upheld in Nebraska the traffic fortunes of George Gould and the Missouri Pacific. Some of these men had known J. Sterling Morton for fifty years. This night the friends of the father sat down with the friends of the sons. Two men only were absent: one, the man who had made such a gathering possible—the father, J. Sterling Morton, founder of Arbor Day, scholar, writer, publicist and loved of these men and of all who knew him; the other, the dead boy, Carl, the youngest son—baby and pet of the three big brothers, who three years ago at thirty-five was head of the great glucose plant at Waukegan—these two would have made the night complete.

The roof under which the company met was worthy of such an event. Arbor Lodge as it stands to-day is the development of an American home begun on the great American desert in 1855. J. Sterling Morton and his bride, Caroline Joy Morton, left Detroit that year for the Far West, and Sterling Morton founded his home, Arbor Lodge, on land one mile west of what is now Nebraska City. The land he preëmpted at $1.25 an acre and he took his title direct from the government. The first house he built was a log house; the second, a frame shack, was built on the same foundation. There was not at that time another house between Arbor Lodge, on the banks of the Missouri River, and the Rocky Mountains. The third house, still on the same foundation, was a better frame house. Then came the fourth house and finally the Arbor Lodge of to-day, the fifth house, a composite of Grecian, Georgian and Colonial architecture, done by Jarvis Hunt, the young Chicago architect, nephew of the late Richard M. Hunt, of New York City.

The three living Morton sons, who are very active Chicago business men, planned the present Arbor Lodge as a memorial to their father, mother and brother, in a word, to the Morton family. The father and the mother of these men were intense lovers of trees and flowers. J. Sterling Morton, distinguished though his public services were, has a more lasting title to remembrance. He was the founder of Arbor Day and American children yet unborn will meet to plant trees on the day that he set apart. In addition to making of the old homestead a beautiful country seat continuously maintained, a spot to which any member of the Morton family may go with his friends at any season of the year and find the home open in its hospitality, the three sons have founded on the estate an arboretum, which is likewise a fitting monument to J. Sterling Morton and his wife. It is the intention of the sons to grow on the acres of Arbor Lodge every flower, plant, shrub and tree that can be raised in the climate of Nebraska.

There is something appealing about all this, and the secret of it lies in the pretty spectacle of a united family of father, mother, sons and brothers. Here is an American home of the type of which there are unfortunately too few. A father devoted to a mother, in her death as in her life; a father who when so many American fathers were running wild after fame and riches found time to look after his boys, and the boys have well shown the father's influence. Sterling Morton left upon each of his four sons the stamp of his integrity; of his personal cleanliness of character; he taught them how to meet men and how to be considerate of women. Nor did he make carpet knights of his sons. When they left home they plunged into the thick of the American fight. They made their own way and to-day they are men of affairs and of very large affairs; men of means and leaders in the industrial life of Chicago and the West. This young Mr. Paul Morton, who goes into the President's cabinet, is one of the most distinguished traffic men in the American railroad world. His brothers are not railroad men. They are manufacturers and capitalists, but the sons are all alike in their broad, calm, sane grasp of men and affairs. And here, too, the traditions of the old home train-

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THE HOUSE PARTY AT ARBOR LODGE

Front Row, seated—Judge Lake, Omaha; E. E. Ayer, Chicago; E. A. Potter, Chicago; Senator J. H. Millard, Omaha; E. P. Ripley, Chicago; General Manderson, Omaha

Middle Row—A. Antisdel, Chicago; L. W. Wakely, Omaha, Neb.; J. G. Shedd, Chicago; B. L. Winchell, Chicago; H. W. Yates, Omaha; J. D. McHugh, Omaha; J. O. Phillippi, Omaha; Dr. Geo. L. Miller, Omaha; Paul Morton, Chicago; J. B. Lord, Chicago; D. H. Burnham, Chicago; George Merryweather, Chicago; G. W. Holdrege, Omaha; J. W. Kendrick, Chicago; Mark Morton, Chicago; D. Miller, Chicago; W. J. Chalmers, Chicago

Rear Row—G. M. Hitchcock, Member of Congress, Omaha; W. S. Eddy, Saginaw, Mich.; Joy Morton, Chicago; T. P. Shonts, Toledo, Ohio; J. R. Morron, Chicago; E. D. Kenna, Chicago

ing may be seen. The pursuit of material things—conflicting interests and ambitions—serve too often in American life to estrange friends and to make of brothers, enemies. It is not so in the Morton family. Under the stress and shock of the building up of great successes and great fortunes, the Morton men are still shoulder to shoulder, just as they were when boys together at Arbor Lodge. They have not found it necessary to push any one of the family to the rear in order to make headway; indeed, they stand so firmly as one that to answer the cablegram of the puzzled admiral in Oriental waters, "Who is Morton?" it would be necessary only to say: He is one of the Morton brothers; or, he is a son of J. Sterling Morton; or, he is Mr. Paul Morton and you will find him to be particularly all right.

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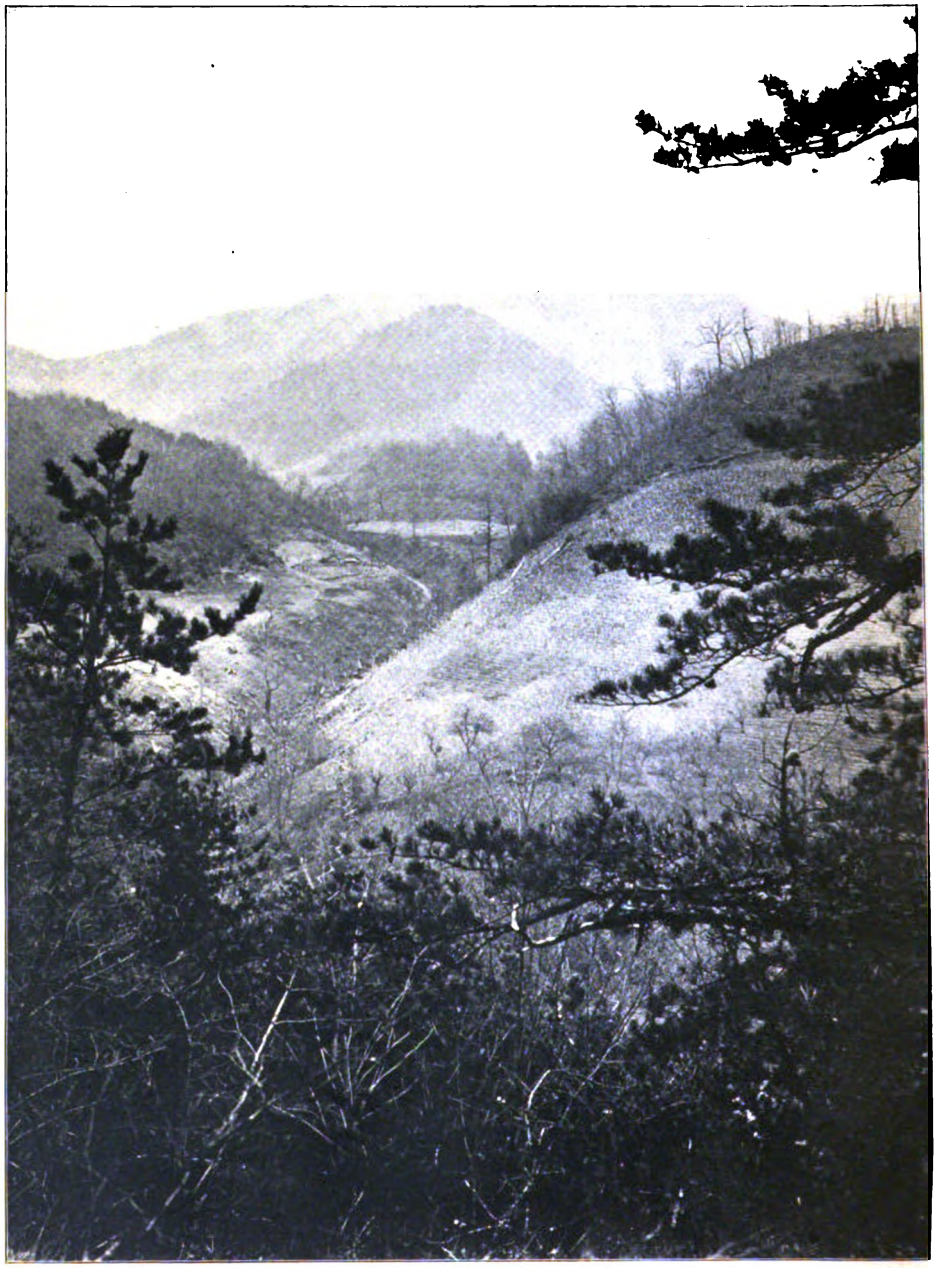

PLOWING IS A DANGEROUS OCCUPATION IN THE NORTH CAROLINA MOUNTAINS

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ELECTION DAY AMONG THE MOUNTAINEERS

BY

GEORGE OTIS SMITH

OF THE UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

PHOTOGRAPHS BY ARTHUR KEITH

ELECTION day began early this year in Seaton Oak Township. It began before dawn, for among other bad habits the people of this region possess the vice of early rising. What is worse, their idea of hospitality leads them to force any chance visitors to breakfast while the stars still shine. To cheer this untimely meal, a chimneyless oil lamp offends at least two of the senses. It is the local habit, however, politely to apologize for the absence of the chimney, it having been "broken last week," but tradition gives no account of a glass chimney ever having been imported into the township.

Seaton Oak Township and Seaton Oak Creek in their name honor both a family and a tree, each the predominant species of the region. The oak has a wide range, but the Seaton family seems to have concentrated itself in this locality. Seatons constitute fully ninety-five per cent of the population. A few families possess other names, but rare indeed is the native in whose veins flows no Seaton blood. Ancestral trees are unknown in Seaton Oak, but outsiders, possibly prejudiced, tell us that the Seatons spring from an old stock and date back to the time when good old England sent her convicts to this virgin country. Heredity doubtless has been a great factor in the development of the family, and its influence has been greatly augmented by constant intermarriage. Whatever the evolutionary process, the tribe has now attained the point where the virtues have well-nigh vanished and the vices appear in full force.

Nature, however, can remain beautiful even where her children are degraded, and it is with pleasure that soon after sun-up we escape from the house of our host, Ri Seaton, the postmaster. A ride along Seaton Oak Creek in early morning appeals even to a matter-of-fact geologist. This is a typical stream of the North Carolina Mountains, winding in and out until it appears either to have lost all sense of direction or to have forgotten its purpose to reach the lower country, where nature is not so grand but man is nobler. The mountains bordering its circuitous course are bright with the autumn tints, for this is a late season and the leaves have remained on the trees. The views that are to be had all along these mountain roads enable one to forget the poor breakfast. Seaton Oak Creek is forded again and again, and as the horse stops in mid-stream to drink, his rider may enjoy all the beauties of a mountain stream. Here and there where the creek falls a few feet over a ledge of harder rock, a rude mill stands on the bank. Otherwise, the stream flows through a wild country and its shores are fringed with thickets of glossy leaved laurel, while the mountain slopes on either side are covered with forests of oak, chestnut and pine.

At first glance, this country seems uninhabited, but as we ride along the creek or leave it to climb up some rough road or trail to the ridge-top, log cabins are seen at every turn, each with its little clearing. Agriculture in these mountains is not much like that of the New England farm or of the Western ranch. Corn is king, as in Kansas, Nebraska and many other states, but here his realm is a modest one. Instead of the beautiful fields that may be seen in the prairie states, small corn patches are found on the steepest of

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slopes. Mark Twain's description of the Alpine farm, where plowing is a dangerous occupation, would fit very well some of these corn fields. Actual measurement showed one such field to have a slope of thirty-two degrees, and stories are told of even steeper farms. It is hard to imagine how men or horses keep from falling on such fields, which are in reality comparable to the average mountain slope. In fact, many of these fields have never had a horse upon them, the cultivation being all by hand, while the ears of corn are rolled to the bottom of the slope, where they are thrown into a box mounted on runners and hauled off by a mule or horse. On one field, however, as we pass, two men are harrowing, and the process well deserves the name although quite interesting to behold. Above, on a steep slope, toil the two mules with their driver, while lower is the harrow and its helmsman. It is indeed a case of skilful steering; both mules and harrow are headed well up-hill, but their progress is along the slope, this direction being the resultant of the forces of gravitation and the two mules.

Yet, with all these difficulties, corn is the principal crop that the mountaineers "make," and it is corn that supports these people. Corn fodder, or "roughness," constitutes the feed for the stock, corn-fed pork and corn meal are the two food staples, while "corn juice" fires the brain of the mountaineer. At one time tobacco was a common crop here, but the tobacco habit is as exhausting for land as it is for young men, and the end of the tobacco boom soon came, leaving worn-out lands. Nowadays, the people raise only sufficient tobacco for home consumption, or in the language of the region, "We make what we chaw."

To-day, few men are at home, but are to be met all along the roads. In the early morning they are coming in all directions toward Middle Oak, the polling place. They come in pairs and squads, on foot or mounted on fast-walking mules. They come from Big Oak and Little Oak, from Alleghany and Black Rock, from Thioga and Big Creek, and from Bible and Sodom, from localities that rejoice in a name, as well as those yet unnamed. Two out of three of these mountaineers carry guns, of the old muzzle-loader type, with its abnormal length of barrel and accompanying powder horn and shot pouch of primitive pattern. Though not equipped with a modern gun, the average resident of Seaton Oak is a dangerous character, and when he gets a revolver he is positively to be feared. This constant companionship of the man and the gun leads to promiscuous shooting as its logical result.

This man with the gun in fact has all the marks of degeneracy that have been attributed to "the man with the hoe." Dirty and vicious, he inspires us with no admiration, and the writers who have endeavored to picture him have never done him injustice. He both looks and plays his part with equal faithfulness. Murder is known in these parts simply as "shootin'," and the way to keep from having a personal enemy is to "lay for him." Family feuds are unknown in Seaton Oak, simply because there is only one family. This does not prevent, however, numerous cases of bullets in the back. A country doctor, living some twenty miles away, makes the interesting statement that his practice in Seaton Oak is similar to that of an army surgeon. Women, too, have their rights in Seaton Oak, for at one time he was called to patch up three female members of the Seaton family who had engaged in a little discussion. Jealousy was the provocation, and each lady received a bullet as a souvenir. Law is coming into the region and there are murder trials in the county of which Seaton Oak is simply the worst part. At one term of court fourteen murder cases were on the docket, with the result of one sentence of two years and three months, another of several months, and twelve acquittals.

Middle Oak on election day is an excellent locality to avoid, and when we come to the log schoolhouse which is the polling place, we do not stop, but, with a polite "Howdy" to the men at the roadside, pass on. Every tree in the vicinity has a mule tied to it, while all about lounge the voters. As we heard later, it was a quiet day at the polls and no one was shot. There is little chance for differences of opinion in matters political, for Seaton Oak is a Republican stronghold. To-day the vote is 198 Republican and four Democratic. As we are later

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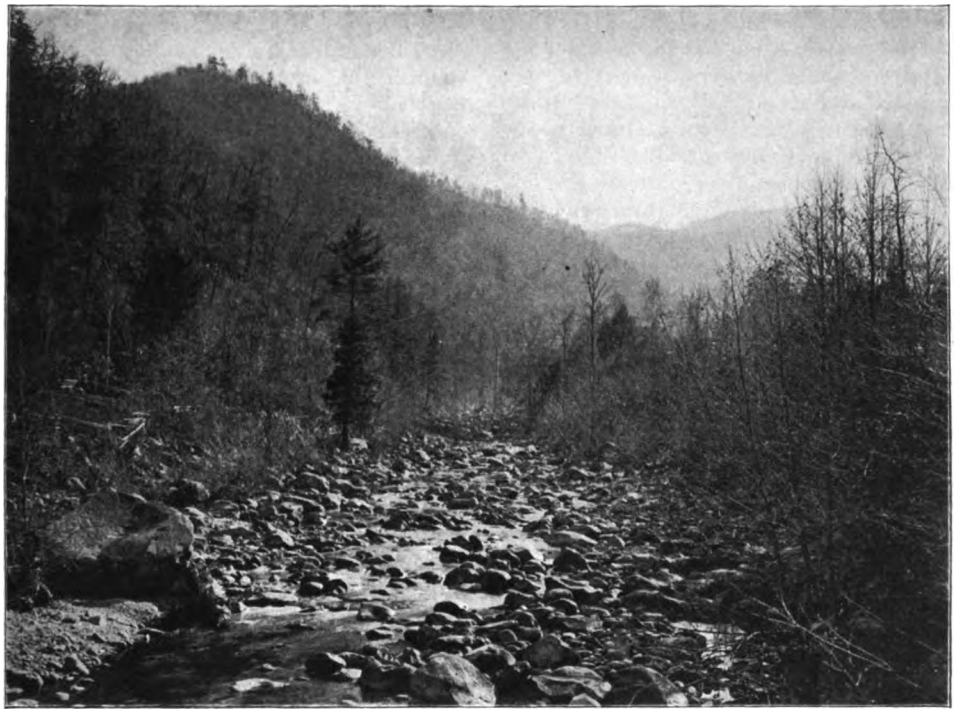
told by old Sheriff Freed, the Republican vote is somewhat small this year, as four good Seatons are in jail and one is in bed as the result of a bullet from an officer's revolver. "The Sheriff," as he is known throughout the region, held the office for over twelve years, and though an old man now and no longer possessing official authority, he is the one power for good in Seaton Oak. A union man, he had a fine war record, to which he added a flawless record as sheriff, and now he enjoys the distinction of being the only decent man in the township. Perhaps it is needless to add that he possesses no Seaton blood.

The political issue in Seaton Oak this year is not imperialism, or trusts, or even tariff revision. Even the negro question awakens no interest here, for, as Pete Seaton says, "No nigger ever came through these parts but once, and that was in war time. Why, some of these children would think a nigger was some kinder wild beast." The issue in Seaton Oak is one handed down from father to son since the days when the Confederate officers tried to get conscripts. Union in sympathy where they cared at all, these mountaineers had a hard time. Many escaped to the union lines, while others hid in the retreats known only to the mountaineers themselves. In one grave on the Seaton Oak were buried thirteen men and boys shot down in cold blood by one party of the raiders. Some of these boys, thirteen and fourteen years of age, are said to have been ignorant that there was a war, a statement easy to believe when one hears the former Democratic candidate for President commonly referred to in Seaton Oak as "Bryant." The fact then remains that a Democrat was a rebel and is a rebel, and Seaton Oak therefore regularly piles up its Republican majority. The four Democrats are simply cranks, and thus not to be held responsible for their forgetfulness of the past.



A NORTH CAROLINA FORD

At noon we hunt for a place where we

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may get dinner. At Cal Seaton's we are unsuccessful, as the "wimmen folks" are gathering corn, and so we go on to old John Seaton's. Here the required meal is secured. It doesn't take long for a Seaton to get up a meal. Her facility in making hot biscuits would be remarkable, were it not overshadowed by the remarkable qualities of the biscuits themselves. In hue they commonly range from bright yellow to light green, while they are always underdone and often little better than warm dough. The natives enjoy them, however, and if character is influenced by food, these green biscuits have much to answer for in Seaton Oak. Corn pone from its simplicity is far less deadly, and indeed would do very well if it were not quite so coarse. There are usually several mixtures on the table hard to describe, which experience teaches it is best to avoid. Apple butter, however, is a good friend to the stranger, and serves to enable him to eat sufficient corn pone to satisfy his hunger. "Cow butter" does not commonly appear on the Seaton table, and when present is dirty white in color with a peculiar granular texture. It is not safe to drink the water at such places and the muddy coffee must be taken straight, for milk and sugar are rarely seen. Such food will keep a little strength in the body, but to any one who knows what good cooking is, four days of such fare is about the limit of human endurance.

A meal at one of these mountain cabins enables the victim to sympathize with the inmates of a Zoo, where the public watches the animals feed. Here it is customary for the family to stand at the opposite side of the table and watch the strangers eat. Doubtless our table manners are curious, but oftentimes when in Seaton Oak we are forced to do as the Seatons do. For instance, where there are only five spoons in the house, one naturally learns to do several things with a knife. But dinner over at John Seaton's, we tear ourselves away from the interested spectators and separate to spend the afternoon in lonely rides on the mountain trail. On my return to meet my companion I am halted opposite Cal Seaton's "still-house" by a loud-spoken mountaineer on a mule. His companion carries a gun, but stands on the opposite side of the creek while the mule and rider cross to meet me. The conversation instantly becomes personal, for Lige Franklin, as he introduces himself, demands name and business. Now Lige is plainly not to be fooled with, for it is election day and he has just visited the distillery. Polite answers are given to his questions and at length he is satisfied, and he becomes friendly and tells his suspicions.

Although not a Seaton, Lige has married into the family. "Where you eat dinner, them's my wife's folks and they sent word down to the polling place that they 'lowed you fellers favored revenuers. Now, them officers is jist devilling the life out of us folks and we's 'bliged to watch them right smart. So old John Seaton, he's my wife's father, he and me jest jumped on this mule and you see how sweaty he's been. Why, he's my mule and four years old, and I wouldn't sweat him like this for fifty dollars, but old John and me, we jest had to come home and come quick." In answer to the suggestion that this distillery at Cal Seaton's was all right, being duly licensed and numbered, Lige becomes quite confidential: "Why! there's a heap of stills round these parts. There's a still right where you eat dinner, there's a still right there and old John and me, we jest had to both of us get on this mule and come home. You see how sweaty he is and I wouldn't make him so sweaty for fifty dollars." At this point, the man with the gun having nothing better to do, fires a salute and mule and horse are both much frightened. Lige, however, only loses his hat and as it is doubtful if he is in condition to dismount and mount again, this service is performed for him. Gratitude is not unknown to Lige, for he draws forth a bottle of the water-white corn whiskey and his desire to share the fiery liquor is most evident. At length he ceases his pressing invitations, being convinced that "I never drink when at work." With a Seaton or even a connection of the Seatons by marriage, the whole truth in such a case would be apt to defeat its own end and a part of the truth can be better comprehended.

After leaving Lige, we ride up the road in search of a place to spend the night. One meal at John Seaton's was enough, so we pass that place by for a

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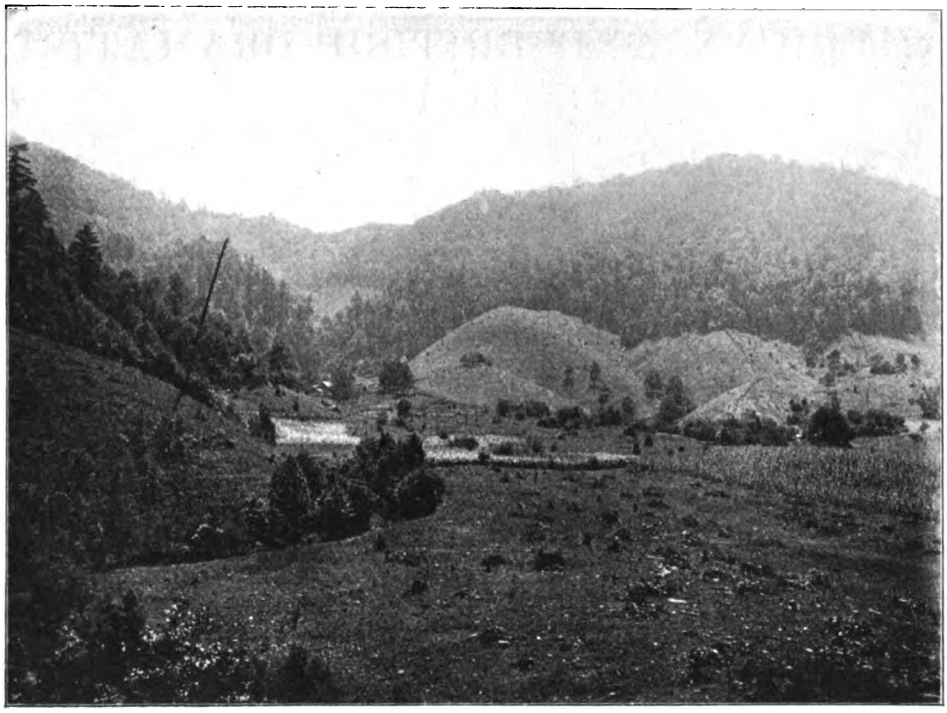

CORN IS KING—BUT OF A SMALL KINGDOM

look at Sol Seaton's house. The exterior does not suggest the comforts of home and we pass on. The "Widder Seaton" has a good-looking house, but is alone and will not take us in, but thinks Pete Seaton will. Pete Seaton is our last hope, for it is now dark, and we ride into Pete's yard determined to stay, and stay we do.

After the usual repast, flavored with the smoke from the chimneyless lamp, we sit by the big open fire, while the various members of the family stare at us and Pete fires question after question. It is his one opportunity for months to get in touch with the outside world, as we tell him of the campaign just finished and who is the probable winner, and here Mrs. Seaton removes her snuffstick from her mouth, spits into the fire, and declares that she wishes the Democratic candidate would break his neck. To her a Democrat is a rebel, hence this delicate expression of her interest in politics. As the evening progresses the family begins to prepare for bed. In Seaton Oak, when the different members of the household have all removed their shoes and the semi-circle of bare feet before the fire is complete, the chance guest may know that bedtime is close at hand. We read the signs of the time, therefore, and withdraw. The family occupy two sleeping apartments and we are sent to the one where there chances to be an unoccupied bed.

When all is at length quiet in the room, our thoughts naturally turn to other places where on election night every one is listening to the messages from the wires. How different all is here. One might almost doubt that this is the era of the telegraph and the railroad, and it is hard to imagine the crowds in the distant cities that are at this hour awaiting so impatiently the news as it is posted on the bulletin boards or thrown upon the screen. But in Seaton Oak we can not learn so quickly who is the nation's choice, and as we drop to sleep we hear the lonely and expressive hoot of the owl, "Who? Who?"

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AMERICAN AND BRITISH DRAMATISTS OF TO-DAY

BY

LYMAN B. GLOVER

FORMERLY DRAMATIC CRITIC OF THE CHICAGO "RECORD-HERALD"

IF one without premeditation, malice prepense or any forethought soever were to set down the names of all the English-speaking dramatists of to-day, he would most assuredly be astonished to learn how small the number is. By dramatists one must be permitted to mean, not the army of enthusiastic amateurs or third-rate manufacturers of weird melodrama, but men who are recognized as in the front rank of contemporaneous dramatic writers.

England and America are almost equally impoverished, and as the years roll by there is no inspired dramatic Moses to lead us out of the barren waste of inconsequence. Aside from Mr. Pinero, Henry Arthur Jones, Sydney Grundy, Haddon Chambers, Bernard Shaw (who does not write with any practical purpose), Captain Marshall, and a few hewers of wood and drawers of water who deal chiefly in adaptations, there is no stir of talent in England. In America not a cloud of promise is in sight so large as a man's hand.

Bronson Howard, the ablest of our guild, waxed rich from the profits of two or three plays and lives idle and perchance contented upon comfortable flesh pots, with incidentally something on the side, if one may be permitted to hazard a guess. The active force remaining in the field includes Mr. Gillette, Mr. Fitch, Mr. Thomas David Belasco, Mrs. Ryley, Mrs. Burnett, and two or three others of more or less consequence who may be regarded as an offset for a like contingent sequestered somewhere in England. Contrast this beggarly array—a phrase which is intended to be used without affront—with the many busy dramatic pens in Shakespeare's time, and one might be pardoned for falling into mild despondency and indulging in a bit of pessimism. Marlowe, Ben Jonson, Robert Greene, Thomas Nash, Chapman, Nathaniel Field, Dekker, Heywood, Middleton, Marston, Webster, Beaumont and Fletcher were all associates of Shakespeare, and no such a galaxy has appeared on the dramatic horizon since their day. Why the beginning of the twentieth century should find no English-speaking dramatist of the first class, and not half a dozen who could prove their title to second-rate honors, is a puzzle beyond all explanation.

The art of play writing is difficult but not impossible, as we have had ample proof; yet no masterpiece has been written within the memory of this generation, and if there is promise of one it must be carefully concealed quite beyond the limit of any immediate possibility. Ibsen, Sudermann, Maeterlinck, D'Annunzio, Sardou, Rostand and others of the now decadent French school have shot their arrows and their possible range is well known. Nothing more can be expected from them, and however valuable their work may be as a contribution to literature, it will not outlive them as a material factor in stage art.

With a demand for plays immeasurably greater than it was a double decade ago, the supply of available material is relatively much smaller. In the United States, DeMille, Bartley Campbell, Charles H. Hoyt, Carleton, Young and a few others who gleaned well in their own field, have fallen out of the race. Mr. Howard, the ablest of the craft, is no longer in productive mood, and the number of active dramatists who can sustain themselves above water is so small as to occasion a sense of wonder not unmixed with apprehension. If this short supply of creative talent continues, it will be neces-

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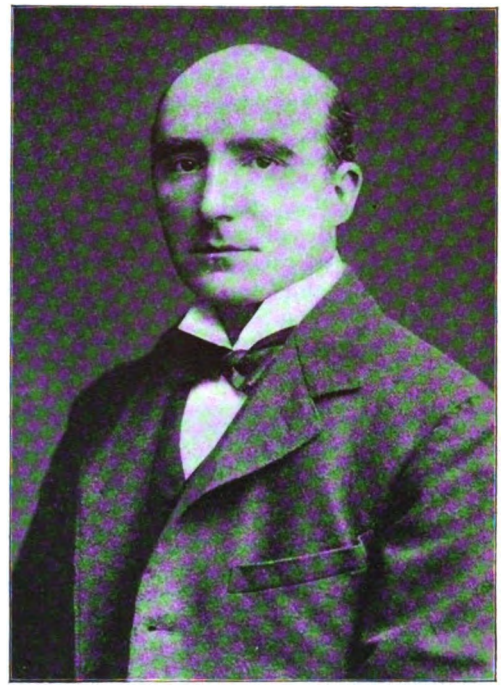
sary to transform our theaters into warehouses and our stage arms into pruning hooks. It is quite impossible for hundreds of surplus theaters to live by comic opera alone. They must have dramatic bread that is not moldy and wine that is not muddy with bad making. Since the semi-classic comedies and tragedies will no longer be accepted, save as a vehicle in which some noted actor may air his paces and his graces, there is no hope in that direction.

We must warm over the plays that for any reason are acceptable and try to hold out by putting the public on short allowance until relief is in sight. But it does make the observer feel rather foolish to read the eloquent arguments in behalf of a national theater when there is neither a national nor an international drama to supply the theaters that already exist. At this juncture a national theater would behave as Mother Hubbard's cupboard when she amiably desired to give that poor dog a bone. The idealists who toy with the notion of a national theater and roll it as a sweet morsel where it will give them the most comfort, do not seem to understand that Gillette, Clyde Fitch, Belasco and Augustus Thomas represent about all that is doing in the dramatic art of the United States at the present time. Unless "The Girl With the Green Eyes," "The Other Girl," "Du Barry," "The Earl of Pawtucket" or "Her Own Way" could adequately and coldly furnish forth the funeral baked meats for a national theater, there appears to be no pressing demand for such a depository.

Of the English-writing dramatists Mr. A. W. Pinero ranks first, owing to his skill in construction and the clever development of his plot and characters. Possessing no glimmer of inspiration and not more than rudimentary imagination, he succeeds by virtue of technical skill and a close study of scientific psychology. There was a gracious promise in "Sweet Lavender" of a fresh, impulsive and sympathetic spirit in the drama, but Mr. Pinero was speedily impressed, *de profundis*, by the consequence of the purpose play, and possessing no suggestion of poetry in his intellectual gear shop he has since engaged in putting together quasi-scientific discussions of burning questions. At least we are bound to conclude



A. W. PINERO
Author of "Sweet Lavender," "Iris," etc.

that "The Profligate," "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray," "The Gay Lord Quex," "The Benefit of the Doubt" and "Iris," not to mention two or three other titles, are the outgrowth either of a pronounced fad or of a sternly self-conceited purpose. Mr. Pinero made his first trial of the real world after emerging from the elysium of youth, as an actor, and not a very good actor at that, if we may trust the chronicles. But his experiences back of the footlights, which commenced in 1874 and ended several years later, were doubtless of more value to him than any other preparatory period in his career. The dramatic writer, the critic, the student, who does not learn the essential requirements of the stage from a close and painstaking study of the region behind the scenes does not know them at all. It would be quite as reasonable to expect a student to learn the peculiarities of the human body by looking at the outside of a medical college as it would to attempt the mastery of the stage from the stalls, or from the retired workshop of a dramatist.

Mr. Pinero's stage experience was of vast service to him in determining the technical arrangement of his plays, and

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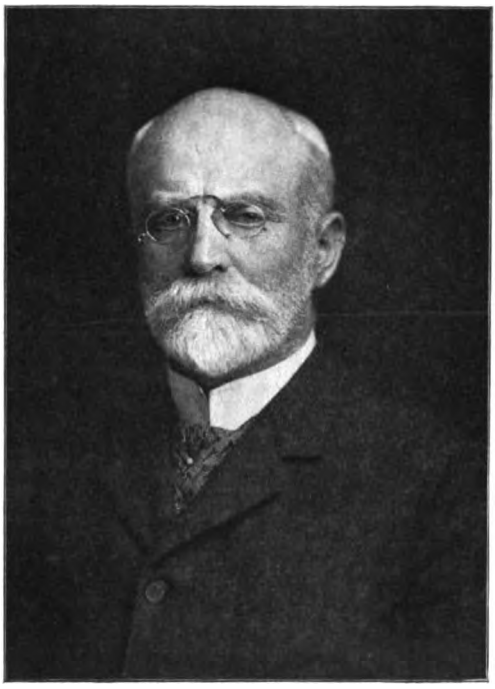
it is largely due to this training, as it was in the case of Shakespeare and several of his associates, that his plays are almost invariably regarded as models of construction, no matter what view may be taken of their subjects. Some of the London critics have turned satirical phrases against what they slightingly allude to as "the well-made play," and Mr. Pinero, as the leader of the constructive craft, is, of course, the chief target for these verbal arrows. But it is difficult to understand why a well-made play is not quite as desirable as a well-made house, hack or automobile. There is certainly no virtue in the shoddy or ill-made article, no matter whether it belongs to the domain of art, architecture or science. Possibly the contention may be that Mr. Pinero is too precise in his methods, too prim in the development of his theme and lacking most of all in spontaneity.



BRONSON HOWARD
Writer of "The Henrietta" and "Shenandoah"

Those who voice this impression prefer a wild dash of eccentricity and enough of abandon in matter and manner to stir the blood, even though the canons of art are entirely disregarded. Probably there is reason in this view of the case. The wild rose that clambers about of its own free will, falling into all manner of graceful festoons in the very riot of unchecked nature, is vastly more engaging than the prim, overtrained rose vine from which nature has been pruned away by art. The play that is spontaneous and natural, rather than precise and mechanical, should create a deeper impression if other considerations are equal. Yet in the case of Mr. Pinero, we discover the art that conceals art, and, while there is no madness in his method and very little freedom of style, the taunt of a well-made play loses its force for the reason that his work is always vital in its own way and contains plenty of matter as well as undeniable technic.

The manner of it is not fluent. One can imagine the dramatist plodding over his scenes and laboring far into the night upon the turn of a sentence. But when the work is completed it is always polished. There are never any loose joints or unfinished surfaces. Elaboration of scenes and sentences is carried almost to the danger point where it would become overelaboration, but it never crosses the line. The vocal play of epigram in dialogue draws dangerously near to affectation and display now and then, but Mr. Pinero curbs his fancy just in time. If he oversteps the modesty of nature, it is only to the extent permissible by dramatic license. The groundlings may go hang before he will carry a situation or a sentence a hair's breadth beyond the legitimate in order to win a round of applause.

But if exceedingly precise in his manner, Mr. Pinero does not lack versatility. "The Money Spinner," "The Squire," "Dandy Dick," "Sweet Lavender," "The Amazons," "The Second Mrs. Tanqueray," "The Princess and the Butterfly," "Trelawney of the Wells," "The Gay Lord Quex" and "Iris" are wide apart from each other as the poles in their moving impulse and treatment. No playwright of the present day has covered so much ground in an artistic and impressive manner, and while the judicious may be inclined to grieve that he has taken a fancy for morbid and even risque subjects there can be no denying the grasp which he exhibits or the technic displayed in all his work. There is no evidence of haste, no pot-boiling method, no sop for

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the gallery. Whether right or wrong in the selection of his themes there is scrupulous care and good workmanship in their development, and thus, in this era of haste of dramatic incubators turning out litters of immature plays, he is a most important and salutary influence. The curse of the American workman, artist or writer, is haste. He wishes to fry out the fat in a hurry and as a consequence it is usually burned.

Bronson Howard is the ranking dramatic writer in the United States, and therefore deserves mention in the same connection with Mr. Pinero, whose peer he is. Although at the most fruitful period of his life, when knowledge and ability are mellowed by experience, he has exhibited no disposition for some years past to add any new laurels to those he has already won, and there is no reason to suppose that he will seek any fresh honors. It has been long since he was impelled by necessity, and the habit of sweet do-nothing once acquired is not easily shaken off. It would be too much to expect a supreme effort under the comfortable conditions surrounding him, although there is little doubt that if he gave free rein to the art that produced "Shenandoah" and "The Henrietta" a play of tremendous interest would result. It would be a safe conclusion that these two plays earned a larger income for the fortunate author than Mr. Pinero has handled from all his later plays put together. But this financial form of comparison has its disadvantages and is not conclusive. If it were accepted as the standard, Clyde Fitch could not be kept out of the first place since, for some years, his income has been larger than that of any other dramatist. This astonishing vagary of fate is not to be accounted for on any logical basis. We only know that weeds always grow more luxuriantly than rare flowers and the vogue of trifles is accounted for by the fact that a little nonsense now and then is relished by the best of men.

Bronson Howard never exhibited any tendencies to the semi-philosophical or purpose plays except in the case of "Aristocracy," which was something of a failure, owing possibly to the fact that he was not at all in sympathy with sociological discussions in dramatic form. His theory is, if we may draw conclusions from his successful work, that plays must be a transcript of human interest designed to enlist sympathy, excite the imagination, quicken the passing hours with their sentiment and humor, and wholly unlike sermons, which are for admonition and reproof. This view very properly leaves out of account the theory current in some quarters that unless the drama is a weariness to the flesh and a depressing bore it is not artistic, a belief that gains very little new support as the years go by.

If "The Henrietta" and "Shenandoah" had not put so much money in his purse that, figuratively speaking, the grasshopper at once became a burden to him and all effort a useless formality, he might have gone much further in the direction of sincere and artistic drama. "The Henrietta" came very near being a typical American comedy. At least it came closer to the mark than any other contribution by a native playwright, exhibiting a grasp from which much greater things might reasonably have been prophesied. One discovers in that play an excellent and even acute study of character and a grasp of situation that is unusual. Some of the scenes are conventional, which is no remarkable circumstance since a play could not be made in any other way, but the situations appeal to the audience as both vivid and vital and the success which the play achieved was due to absolute interest in plot and character, and not to any sensational buffoonery of any kind.

As in "The Banker's Daughter" and other plays of less note, Mr. Howard's purpose in constructing "The Henrietta" was to write a play and not a sermon or a philosophical discourse on disease or heredity. If this excellent example, which was also set forth in "Shenandoah," were followed by dramatists in general the theatrical situation might soon clear up. But so long as uninspired play writers insist upon injecting weak philosophy, uncooked problems and juiceless disquisitions on life in general, into their plays, the average dramatic offering will not be worth more than passing and casual consideration.

"Shenandoah," the most successful of war plays, is a singular mixture of genuine drama and typical melodrama. There

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WILLIAM GILLETTE
Writer of "Held by the Enemy," "Secret Service," etc.

is heart interest mingled with the pulse of battle, the stress and strain of war, and the comedy as well as the tragedy of love. Sheridan's ride provided a climacteric moment just as the chariot race gave a stir to "Ben Hur" and the curfew incident gripped the nerves of audiences attracted by Belasco's play, "The Heart of Maryland." But it was the deft mingling of comedy and sentiment that made "Shenandoah" the success it was and earned a fortune for all who had a finger in that popular pie.

It is part of the gossip that Charles Frohman laid the foundation of his success as a producing manager in the popularity of "Shenandoah," and there are tales afloat that the play was respectfully declined by a number of managers who lived to regret their monumental blunder in judgment. A popular success is not, however, the final test of merit, but it is an indication of fitness not to be denied. If a play meets with general favor it must be suited to the purpose for which it is designed, and this at least is a merit worth considering in these days, when so many plays fail to strike the target, to say nothing of the bull's-eye.

Among the most successful of present-day American dramatists is William Gillette, who first writes and then acts his own plays, thus earning comfortably the rewards of an artist and the royalty of a dramatist. Aside from Wilson Barrett, Mr. Gillette is the only histrion of the day who is able to monopolize the profits in this assured and comfortable manner, and it is confidently believed along the Rialto of upper Broadway and in the profession generally that he has accumulated a fortune greater than that enjoyed by any other American actor, with possibly two exceptions. "Held by the Enemy" and "Secret Service" are his original plays, while "Sherlock Holmes" made great demands upon his technical skill, and "Too Much Johnson," "The Private Secretary," "Because She Loved Him So" and "All the Comforts of Home" also demonstrated his clever appreciation of dramatic values. Had his duties in the theater been less exacting, it is likely that Mr. Gillette would have contributed a much wider range of original material. His grasp of character and situation is so strong and positive that work of a more lasting quality might fall from his pen if he should forego acting and apply himself to playmaking. His model is always nature, not with a view to producing crude and squalid realism, but nature in her benevolent and humorous moods. He has never subscribed to the theory that the lower and more distressing the subject the higher the art of a dramatic composition. Delicate and quizzical humor is perhaps the topmost note in Mr. Gillette's register, but as a dramatist he has a very sure command of sentiment, and these two qualities, when allied to a fertile imagination, are the most important endowment of a dramatist.

Mr. Gillette's stage manner is so direct and simple that many are unwilling to concede to him any acting ability, and the simplicity and clarity of his play-writing also leaves a doubt in regard to special merit in the minds of certain superficial persons. But results can not be produced without adequate causes and Mr. Gillette does not succeed by chance in either of the functions identified with his career.

The most unique figure among the American dramatists of to-day is David Belasco, who, as playwright, theatrical

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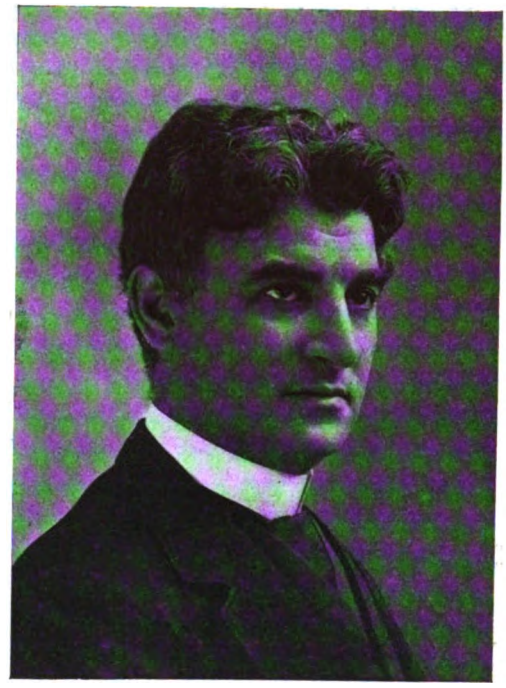
manager and actormaker, has won quite unusual distinction. Mr. Belasco is a study, both in character and achievement. He is a product of the theater, having worked his way up from the lowest round of the ladder, and knows each step of the way. Observing first the essentials of cause and effect as they appear on that practical battleground back of the curtain, he was grounded as Mr. Pinero is, and but few dramatists are, in the fundamental necessities of stage art. With this knowledge to cover a multitude of sins in the way perhaps of lacking culture, Mr. Belasco has gradually developed into an expert play constructor. "Hearts of Oak" which he arranged in collaboration with James A. Herne, was not his "fust offense," as "Caddy" would say, but that achievement was made many years ago under the auspices of the Hamlins in what is now the Grand Opera House, Chicago. It was not until "The Heart of Maryland," with Mrs. Carter as a full-blossomed star, astonished the wiseacres and set the critics by the ears that he was recognized as a dramatist. Then came "Zaza," made over from the original of "Simon and Barton," by Mr. Belasco with such clever skill that it almost takes on the proportions of a new work. Then "DuBarry" and "The Darling of the Gods" and "Sweet Kitty Bellairs," certified in various ways to Mr. Belasco's skill in dramatic carpentry.

The jealous-minded still insisted that he borrowed essentials and contributed little more than upholstery, but no one seemed able to imitate his tactics or produce like results. If borrowing is the root of such success, it seems a pity in these lean and hungry days of the stage that there are not more expert borrowers. It may be conceded that Mr. Belasco owes much of his success to arts that contribute to the work of the playwright. Stage effects are an open book to him. He has solved all the mysteries of scenic illusion and of stage lighting, and his invention as a stage manager and producer frequently contributes elements of success which were lacking in the original manuscript.

Just what niche in the temple of dramatic fame Clyde Fitch is to occupy when the curtain is rung down for the last time is a question upon which the critics are more generally agreed than the public at



DAVID BELASCO
Writer of "The Heart of Maryland," etc.

large. In fertility he has surpassed all the American dramatists, sometimes turning out two or three plays in a season, and giving the impression that he has a new comedy ready to be born whenever a purchaser appears in the offing. "Open day and night" is the legend which might hang over his door, as it does upon the front of certain drug stores and eating-houses designed to accommodate the owl tribe. Possibly he does not know himself how many plays have gone forth from his workshop full panoplied and bearing his own name along with certain evidences of assimilation from other sources.

Beginning with "Beau Brummel," the authorship of which lies somewhere between Richard Mansfield and Clyde Fitch, the latter gentleman has contributed many plays of which the following titles may be regarded as representative: "The Moth and the Flame," "Nathan Hale," "The Cowboy and The Lady," "Barbara Fritchie," "The Climbers," "The Girl With the Green Eyes" and "Her Own Way." These are only a few of the many, but will serve for purposes of casual analysis with a view to determining the status of the author.

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Mr. Fitch undoubtedly possesses excellent decorative invention. He is a connoisseur in dramatic bric-a-brac and decoration and can upholster a simple and time-worn situation so deftly as almost to deceive the elect. His children's parties, dinners, dark scenes and sometimes picturesque love episodes are typical of the Fitch method. They please the eye, create a sense of novelty and thus answer a useful purpose. Indeed, Mr. Fitch deserves more credit than he often receives for the neat turn he gives to commonplace situations and for the color he introduces in scenes that would normally be colorless. This is more of an art than many imagine, and should gain a certain amount of absolution for the sins of haste which may be placed at his door. It may also be said of Mr. Fitch that he possesses a quick appreciation of dramatic values, a pretty wit and a clever use of dialogue, which qualification, if made the most of, would assist him to a much higher position than he has shown any disposition to occupy. By limiting his output and working laboriously for many months to produce legitimate results, this talented man might yet justify the hopes his friends have entertained for him. The parentage of pot boilers may be profitable, but it is not distinctly creditable.

CLYDE FITCH
Author of "The Girl With the Green Eyes," etc.

AUGUSTUS THOMAS
Author of "The Other Girl," etc.

Augustus Thomas has earned a conspicuous place among American dramatists although his range of achievement is very limited. Yet in the way of atmosphere he succeeds in going a step beyond most of his associates, while in fertility of comedy invention he is at least equal to the best of them. But, like the others in his class, his work is not for all markets, and this seems to be the bar sinister to all American efforts in the dramatic field. The subjects commonly made use of by American dramatists either belong to the soil or are typically American in their tone, and appeal distinctively to our own people. There is no reason why England should not feel an interest in the border drama of the United States or in certain of our character comedies, but in declining thus far to be moved by plays of which "Arizona" and "Alabama" may be regarded as a type, the mother country has served notice upon us that our drama is still considered provincial.

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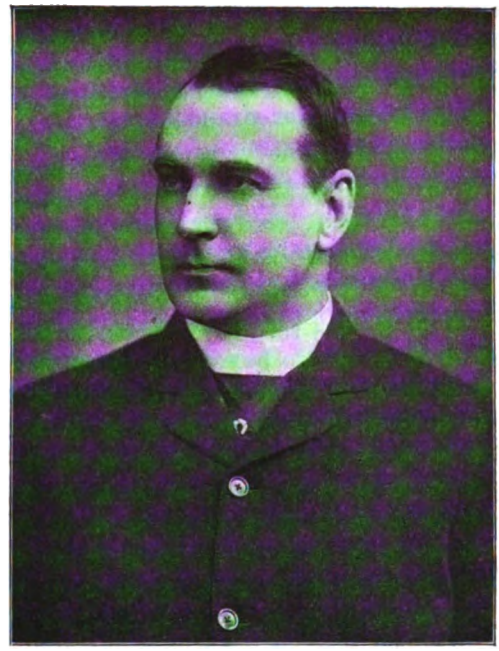
Mr. Thomas has written some scenes with a distinct grasp of dramatic meanings, and in such comedies as "The Earl of Pawtucket" and "The Other Girl" he gives evidence of a neat turn of humor and amusing complication. To say that he often stops just short of clinching the nail is to accredit him with a failing that is shared by most writers, particularly the American dramatists who are in so much haste to finger royalties that they can not labor patiently toward artistic results. Mr. Thomas may write a finished play one of these days, but it does not seem likely that he will attempt anything better than the haymaking art of harvesting while the sun shines.

Henry Arthur Jones, the English dramatist who shares honors with Mr. Pinero, has been a most fruitful writer of clever plays, ranging from that melodramatic success, "The Silver King," to "Michael and His Lost Angel," with all varieties of comedy drama lying between these extremes. Typical of his range are such plays as "Saints and Sinners," "The Dancing Girl," "Hoodman Blind," "The Middleman," "The Case of Rebellious Susan," "The Maneuvers of Jane," "The Liars," "The Bauble Shop," "The Crusaders," "The Masqueraders," "Mrs. Dane's Defense," "The Rogue's Comedy" and "The Physician," not to mention a dozen other plays that attest a certain versatility and a most decided industry. Mr. Jones was a commercial traveler or bagman, before he became a dramatist, and has never lost to sight the thrifty habit of carrying goods designed to secure a ready sale. One can scarcely condemn him for this practice without condemning the whole world of art which has income for its essential object. Mr. Jones has never failed to take himself and his work seriously.

His theories, as expressed in many thoughtful essays and magazine articles, are those of an able, intelligent and resourceful man, and if his plays are ephemeral, as most plays have been, at least they represent more imagination and a higher order of scholarship than most of the plays born, like the butterfly, for an existence of one brief day. We may not be quite able to follow him into such grimy speculations as "Michael and His Lost Angel," or to feel at all certain



SYDNEY GRUNDY
Writer of "The Black Tulip," etc.

that "Mrs. Dane's Defense" is anything more than a bit of theatrical flapdoodle, but at least there is much to admire in the Jones versatility and painstaking effort. Probably there would be more spontaneity in his work if he did not take himself so seriously. The plays that in a measure write themselves and are not made the hobby horse upon which some sociological fad may ride at a hand gallop, are likely to be the best and most interesting. When the dramatist imagines that he must insert a deeply laborious sermon in the bowels of his play, and elbows the clergyman or the philosopher out of his own proper function, he places a most dangerous handicap upon his own work.

Sydney Grundy, who has been an active spirit in English dramatic writing for a considerable time, has been mentioned as one of the trinity in which Pinero and Jones are the other members. A very active adapter of plays, he can not be credited with so much original work as his competitors have thrown off, nor is he so scholarly or precise in his dramatic statements or literary methods. In such plays as "The Arabian Knights," "A Bunch of Violets," "The Black Tulip" and "Sow-

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ing the Wind," which may be regarded as typical of his style, we find evidences rather of fluency than finish. "The Degenerates" was a frank concession to a certain demand for dramatic pruriency, an attempt which failed to meet Pinero and Jones on the ground of a quasi-purpose play. "Sowing the Wind," with a similar tendency, was far more impressive, despite certain extremely melodramatic tendencies, but in neither case did Mr. Grundy justify any pronounced expectation for the future. He seems in all his undertakings to be rather a clever artisan than an accomplished artist, and, while able to give some account of himself as a hewer of dramatic wood and drawer of theatrical water, it can scarcely be said that he has materially adorned the stage with any original thought or strikingly novel treatment of old themes. Perhaps he might argue that he is in good company and plenty of it, which answer, though inconclusive, can not be denied.

Upon the other contemporaneous playwrights it is not necessary to dwell at length. R. C. Carton has made friends and accumulated a certain reputation with "The Home Secretary," "Wheels Within Wheels," "The Tree of Knowledge" and "Lady Huntsworth's Experiment." Haddon Chambers is remembered for "The Tyranny of Tears," Captain Marshall for "The Royal Family," Jerome K. Jerome for "Miss Hobbs," Bernard Shaw for "Arms and the Man" and "Candida." There are others of more or less consequence, just as some play builders not known to these pages for obvious reasons, are to be found in this country. We also remember that there are several ladies who have gained some reputation in this difficult field, among them Mrs. Burnett, Mrs. Ryley, Martha Morton and Mrs. Hobbes, but when thrown into the balance their work does not materially change the balance of dramatic trade or alter the conclusion that the advantage in play-writing is thus far very largely in favor of England. It is evident, however, that contemporaneous English and American dramatists are not likely to leave a very broad mark upon history. In versatility and fertility of invention the Englishmen are more than a match for their American brethren. This is due apparently not to greater individual ability and alertness or to a wider range of imagination, but to the advantage an older civilization always possesses over the younger. Every nation must first hew building stones out of the mountain. After homes are built and necessities provided there is time available to transform some of these stones into works of art.

THE NEW GALVESTON

BY

C. ARTHUR WILLIAMS

OF THE HOUSTON "POST"

THE West Indian hurricane which swept over the city of Galveston on September 8, 1900, was the most destructive storm of modern times. Its effects can be described only in superlatives. For days the survivors were dazed and inert. The situation seemed devoid of even a single ray of hope. Eventually they recovered from the first shock of grief and despair and commenced the work of restoration. Obstacles that seemed insurmountable presented themselves, but the brave community prosecuted its task unceasingly and the degree of success it has attained forms a monument to human pluck and endeavor which has few or no parallels.

More than six thousand lives were lost on Galveston Island during the storm, and property worth not less than $18,000,000 was destroyed. The census of that year credited the city with a population of 37,789 and it is probable that not a single individual escaped losses of

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some kind. Four thousand, one hundred and thirty-one houses were either demolished or swept away and every other building was damaged to some extent.

In the face of such an appalling catastrophe it is not surprising that opinions as to Galveston's future were distinctly pessimistic. Many people left the city, convinced that it was unsafe as a place of residence. The feeling of hopelessness and gloom engendered during the days immediately following the storm was so general and so deep seated that the advisability of entirely abandoning the site was seriously discussed. As time went on, however, the prevailing chaos gave way to definite plans for the town's rehabilitation. A quality of determination and self-reliance of which history records no more notable example developed among those who had large property interests and soon extended to hundreds who were bound to the place by no more tangible ties than their love for it as a home and their belief in the ultimate triumph of its natural advantages. This feeling gradually widened, enlarged in every way and bore results. Instead of merely mourning the Galveston that had been, the people fixed their hopes on the Galveston that was to be and set about the task of building up a city greater and stronger than the one which had been so sorely stricken.

BUILDING THE SEA WALL
Showing the Concrete Mixing Machine

THE WALL SEEN FROM THE GULF SIDE
With Granite Riprap at the Base

And to-day, after the lapse of only four years, they see many of their hopes fulfilled. The waste places have again been covered with homes and business buildings. Confidence has been restored. Most remarkable of all, a work has been accomplished which experts confidently assert will prevent such awful destruction of life and such heavy damage to property as that of 1900, even in the improbable event of a recurrence of so severe a hurricane. A sea wall, intended to protect the community from the waters of the Gulf of Mexico, has been constructed along the Gulf front and operations looking to the raising of the grade of a large portion of the city have been under way for some time past. Moreover, the people believe that the purposes for which the two projects were designed will be accomplished. The cost of carrying the plan of protection to its conclusion is estimated at $3,500,000.

It was on November 22, 1901, more than a year after the storm, that the board of commissioners which administer Galveston's affairs appointed a board of engineers to devise this plan. The board consisted of Brigadier-General Henry M. Robert, U. S. A. (retired), Alfred Noble and H. C. Ripley. On January 25, 1902, it submitted a report calling for the construction of a sea wall and the raising of the grade. At first there was consid-

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erable skepticism as to the possibility of developing the idea, from an engineering standpoint, and more as to the practical utility of the proposed improvements; but so earnest were the promoters that this soon passed away. The county of Galveston, eighty per cent of the taxable values of which is furnished by the city, agreed to construct the wall, while the grade-raising project was left to the municipal government. State aid was asked and the Twenty-seventh Texas Legislature enacted a law providing for the donation to the city of certain state taxes due from its residents, amounting to about $140,000. The Twenty-eighth Legislature increased the concession by making it apply to taxpayers of both the county and the city, and for a period of fifteen years. These taxes approximate $75,000 annually, and will therefore amount to about $1,125,000 for the whole term. The county was also given permission to issue $1,500,000 in four per cent forty-year bonds, and an issue of $2,000,000, at not more than five per cent, was authorized on the part of the city. So loyal were the people that the bulk of these securities were soon disposed of at home, only a small portion being allowed to go elsewhere. The law under which the county issue was made provided for a special tax levy of fifty cents on each $100 worth of property, and it is a remarkable fact that, despite the impoverished condition of a large proportion of the population as a result of the storm, practically every cent of the assessment was paid within eight months after the bonds were marketed, and a block of the bonds, amounting to about four per cent of the entire amount, was permanently retired.

THE WATER FRONT OF GALVESTON IMMEDIATELY AFTER THE STORM

The contractors employed by the county commenced their work on October 27, 1902, and finished it on July 30 of the present year. The wall they constructed is 17,593 feet in length, 16 feet wide at

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the base, 5 feet wide at the top and in height 17 feet above mean low tide. The foundation rests on 4 rows of round piling. The timbers are each 12 inches in diameter and are driven, 4 feet apart, into the ground to a distance of 44 feet. In order to prevent undermining from the Gulf a row of sheet piling is driven down to a depth of 26 feet below mean low tide, at a point just inside the outside row of round piling, and additional protection is furnished by a granite riprap apron which extends 27 feet out into the water.

The wall proper is composed of solid concrete which was mixed in machinery made especially for the purpose and tamped into forms in sections. The wall was further strengthened by steel rods, 9 feet in length, which were placed in it at intervals of 3 feet. A 100-foot fill, which is to be converted into a speedway, extends along the entire rear length of the structure. The contract price of the wall was $1,198,318.80, and there were used in its construction 150,000 tons of concrete, 110,000 tons of granite, 50,000 tons of sand, 27,000 tons of cement, 18,000 round piles, 4,000,000 feet of sheet piling and 10 carloads of reinforcing rods. Altogether 18,110 carloads of material were consumed.

During the next year or so the wall will be added to by the federal government, Congress having last winter appropriated $591,000 for a uniform structure in front of the United States military reservation known as Fort Crockett, and connecting with the south end of the work done by Galveston county. When this addition is completed the total length of the wall will be approximately four miles.

THE NEW GALVESTON: A VIEW FROM THE COURT HOUSE LOOKING WEST

The importance of the grade-raising project may be appreciated when it is stated that no part of the island is more than a few feet above the sea level, and that on the night of the storm water covered the first floor of the city's prin-

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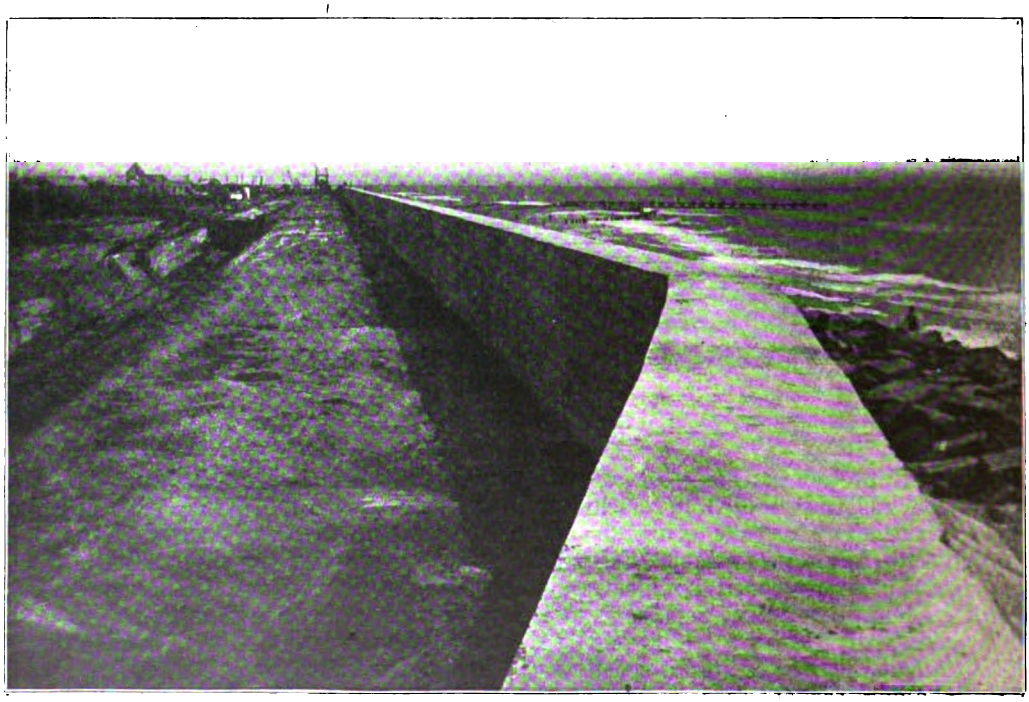
cipal hotel, in the heart of the business district, to a depth of some twenty-four inches. The work was early placed in the hands of a board of citizen commissioners appointed by the governor of the state, and this body selected Captain C. S. Riche, U. S. A., as its consulting engineer. As finally agreed on, the plan of operations contemplates the raising of the grade to eight feet above mean low tide in that portion of the city lying along Galveston Bay, on the north side of the island. From this point the height is to be gradually increased, at the rate of one foot in every fifteen hundred, until, when the sea wall on the south or Gulf side of the island is reached, the grade shall be seventeen feet high, or even with the top of the wall. It was deemed impracticable to undertake the whole of the enormous task at once, and when a contract was let to a New York firm in December, 1903, it called for the completion of the work in only three of the four sections into which the project has been divided. The section not provided for embraces a large part of the business district. The sections to be operated on may be described as the southern half of the city, abutting on the sea wall, and the northeastern quarter, fronting on the bay. In other words, the grade in the eastern half of the city will be raised over the whole width of the island, from the bay to the Gulf, while only the southern portion of the western half, lying behind the sea wall, will be treated. The contract price of the work now being done is $2,080,745, and the project is to be completed within three years after its commencement, or by February 18, 1907.

The raising of the grade is intended to furnish a solid backing for the sea wall, to prevent water reaching a depth in the city dangerous to life and property, and to afford sufficient elevation for drainage and sewerage from that part of the town lying along the Gulf. The plan of the contractors, while novel, has been declared feasible by eminent engineers. A canal is being constructed parallel to the sea wall right of way on the island side as the work progresses, and material for the filling is brought up this waterway from Galveston Bay and from the deep water channel between the jetties built by the federal government some years ago. Operations are carried on by self-loading



AN ANGLE IN THE SEA WALL

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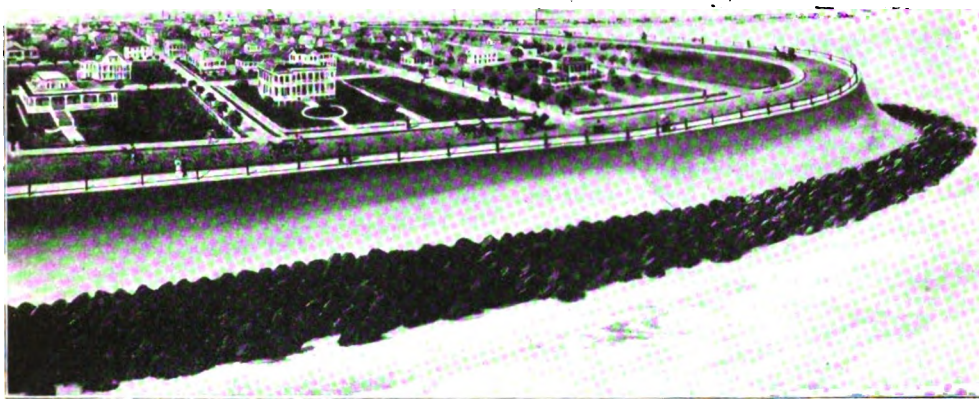

THE GALVESTON SEA WALL WHEN COMPLETED
From a Drawing. Copyrighted, 1903, by J. Stockfleth

and self-propelling dredges, which, after loading, come up the canal, stop at designated points and discharge their cargoes through pipes extending down the adjacent streets and avenues. The earth taken out of the canal as it progresses is placed on the sea wall right of way so that it may be used to refill the excavation after the work is finished and there is no longer any use for the waterway. When there are houses where the canal is being cut through, the contractors are required to move them to sites provided by the city, rent free, and later to return them to their original locations. The city leases the vacated premises from their owners in the meantime, paying nothing in the way of rental, however, except the taxes for the periods covered by the leases.

One large dredge has been at work for some time past and three others are en route to Galveston, two from Dantzig, Germany, where they were built, and the third from Kinderdyk, Holland, at which point it was recently completed. The progress of the work necessarily interferes with natural conditions to a considerable extent, but, in view of what it is expected to accomplish, less complaint than might reasonably be looked for is in evidence. Most of the houses which have been removed so far are of wood and comparatively small. A total of 2,156 buildings of this kind will be handled under the present contract, and water and gas pipes, electric lights, street railway tracks, sidewalks, etc., will be adjusted to the new level. While many of those interested hope that the grade of the entire city may be raised ultimately, no very clear explanation of how the big business structures are to be disposed of while operations are in progress has ever been vouchsafed. Still, things which seemed quite as impossible as the raising of a large brick or stone building have already been accomplished, and when the community takes up this part of its self-imposed task there is reason to believe that it will be as successful as it has been with that which already stands as a silent testimonial to its ability to surmount obstacles and achieve results. The city has established a reputation for doing things, and its people are determined that that reputation shall not suffer.

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THE LATEST PHASES OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

BY

EDMUND JANES JAMES

PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS
FORMERLY PRESIDENT OF NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY, AND DIRECTOR OF THE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION DIVISION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

A REASONABLY thorough and complete common school education is easily accessible to every child in the United States and most of the countries of Europe. In this country, the public high school brings a more extended training within reach of the greater number of young people, but still it is available to them only by an additional expense, and in many cases, only by traveling to a considerable distance from home. The normal schools and colleges afford training to older students, but in order to obtain it the expense is still greater, and the necessity for the student to leave his home, almost universal. The highest grades of university and technical education may be obtained in but few localities, and the students in these higher schools gather from all parts of the country.

Within the last half century there has been in Europe, as well as in the United States, a very decided movement to extend the advantages of higher education to a greater per cent of the young and aspiring. The extent of this movement and the really remarkable things that have been accomplished by its leaders, are not all well known to the general public. At the present time it is possible for any person, no matter where he may live or what his occupation may be, to obtain at his own home a valuable, though doubtless imperfect, substitute for advanced college and university training, at an expense comparatively trifling. Strong as this statement may appear, it is fully justified by the facts.

As early as 1845, a large number of distinguished Englishmen petitioned the University of Oxford to adopt such measures as would throw open its doors or carry its instruction to the poorer classes of the kingdom. Five years later, William Sewell, B.D., of Oxford, epitomized the trend of English thought and desire by the much quoted expression: "Though it may be impossible to bring the masses requiring education to the university, may it not be possible to carry the university to them?" This idea, so aptly expressed, has been the prime motive of leaders in extension work ever since. Is not this general extension of teaching perfectly logical? The spirit of education, prolific and vigorous, is constantly seeking new channels of usefulness. With elementary education adequately cared for by the state, and possessing within itself the essentials of perpetuity; with higher education partially provided for by the state and by endowed institutions, but available only to those who are able to place themselves within its comparatively narrow bounds, the only logical progressive step is to bring under the influence of education, the vast numbers that have not been reached heretofore.

Many plans have been suggested, and several have been successfully established. These may be considered as of three general types. By the first type, it is sought to provide scholarships at the universities for deserving candidates. The most remarkable effort of this character was the founding of the Rhodes scholarships, which manifestly tend to the education of larger numbers of students rather than the intensification of the training of a few. The Rhodes scholarships seek the promising students, but set up one irrevocable provision against the selection of a particular class, no matter how well qualified the members of that class may

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be. Geographical location is given precedence over educational fitness, and this makes certain a great variety in the types of students who profit by the scholarships.

The second and third plans mentioned do not require the student to reside at the university. By the second, which is ordinarily known as university extension, centers for work are established in various parts of the country, lectures are given by members of the faculty, and classes formed for the pursuance of any desired study. The third plan still further widens the influence of the teacher by carrying his instruction to the individual, who is not compelled to meet other members of a class, or to leave his home in the preparation of his lessons or for actual recitation. This is the correspondence method of instruction, which has of recent years become of vast importance to thousands of people, especially in the United States.

Extension work and its legitimate outgrowth, correspondence instruction, are not in the least antagonistic to other educational methods; rather, do they supplement and support resident work. Many a student who is unable to complete his course in residence, may carry it on to his own satisfaction after he has left the school; a considerable number of young people of limited means who might compass the professional college course away from home, are unable to add the preparatory years which would be necessary to fit themselves for the higher work. To the last group the preparatory correspondence courses are a boon of great value.

Perhaps the highest claim for recognition possessed by extension and correspondence teaching lies in the great number of persons that can be reached. There is no limit to the number of students that can be taught, and few places are so inaccessible that the mails will not reach the worker. An extension center can be established hundreds of miles from the university in any place where it is possible for the people to bear the expense. Correspondence instruction can be given everywhere at practically the same expense. A second claim for extension work is found in its adaptability to nearly all classes and conditions. The lectures and classes are attended by lawyers, doctors, ministers, teachers, tradesmen and craftsmen. The more popular a course, the greater will be the variety of occupations represented in the audience. The number taking the work at any center is limited to the number of interested people to whom the center is accessible. The success of a correspondence course has no such limitation. It is purely personal and individual. Thus, a course in electrical engineering might fail if offered by the lecturer, because of an insufficient number of students interested in electrical engineering and within the range of a common center. The same course offered by correspondence need not be abandoned unless there were not a sufficient number interested in electrical engineering within the reach of the mails. The remarkable growth of correspondence schools is owing to this fact.

There are serious obstacles to success in teaching some subjects by correspondence, but they are gradually vanishing as the attention of determined and experienced teachers is directed toward them. For instance, such an obstacle appeared in endeavoring to teach a foreign language by correspondence; but it seemed possible to overcome this difficulty by the aid of the phonograph. Subjects requiring considerable research in libraries seemed to offer insurmountable difficulties until an adequate number of reference books were collected and either sent to the student as his own, or loaned to him while pursuing his studies. Laboratory work by correspondence at one time seemed impossible; but already "traveling laboratories" are a reality.

To overcome such obstacles has been a difficult matter and involved an expenditure of time and money that is not fully realized by those who have had nothing to do with the plan. There have been two popular and erroneous notions concerning correspondence instruction: It is popularly considered inexpensive for the management and not difficult for the instructors. As a matter of fact, it is the most expensive form of instruction, because each student requires the entire time of his instructor while making the recitation, whereas, at a residence school, each pupil has but a small proportion of the instructor's time. While the fees re-

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quired sometimes seem large, yet the amount of material furnished the student, and the time of the skilled instructor spent in correcting papers, fully justify a liberal charge. A recitation by correspondence is not as easy to conduct as an oral one. The instructor must read the paper submitted with greater intensity and with more discriminating judgment, as he can not interpret what is said by the personality of the pupil who has written; his instructions must be more lucid, more comprehensive and more sympathetic, because of the fact that his own presence will be lacking when his criticisms are read by his student.

To the pupil, however, the instruction is really inexpensive, because his wages are not lost, he pays nothing for traveling and has no increased living expenses to meet. It can not be said, however, that a correspondence recitation is in any sense an easy one. A great deal of writing is required, and this is laborious. There is no instructor at the side of the student to coach him or to make his recitation for him. All this might appear discouraging, but there are compensating factors in the thoroughness and accuracy with which the recitation is made, in the self-reliance that is developed and in that quality of personal initiative which is always more pronounced in correspondence than in class-room students. It follows, of course, that lack of perseverance is as fatal in one method of study as in the other.

Instruction by correspondence has had to contend with the inertia and conservatism of reputable educational institutions. It has not been aided by endowment, and it is too expensive to be carried on except under the most careful business management. The devising of practical plans for supplying reference books has been slow, and even a meager equipment for experimental work not usually attainable. Ignorance of suitable methods by those giving instruction has worked a corresponding lack of faith in its possibilities. The spirit of commercialism has been conspicuous in some instances, and there have been fraudulent enterprises masquerading under respectable names. Moreover, many of those features of college life which attract students are wholly missing. There can be no football squads, no glee clubs or track teams in a correspondence school. Those who take the instruction must do it for the sake of the instruction alone.

However, there are many encouraging tendencies to be observed. Some of the text-books especially prepared for correspondence work are models of conciseness and clearness. They have been written with the knowledge that an instructor would not be at hand to interpret or supplement their teaching, and have in a large measure overcome the disadvantages of such absence. Gradually, too, the public is learning that the system is practical and no longer experimental. Every student who successfully completes a course becomes an advocate of the method, and assists in making it known. While in many respects the present methods are more or less tentative, the best are being made permanent as rapidly as experience approves them, and the leaders of educational thought are now more in sympathy with correspondence instruction.

Organized professional instruction by correspondence may be said to have had its origin in Germany in 1856 in a school of languages established in Berlin. In the United States, the Chautauqua University, which grew out of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, was the first organized effort at systematic instruction through the mails. It was organized in 1884, and upon its faculty list appear the names of many noted instructors. William R. Harper, then of Yale University, was principal, while among the others were James R. Robinson, professor of Latin; William E. Waters, of Greek; W. D. McClintock, of English; Richard T. Ely, of political economy, and Frederick Starr, of zoology and physical science. The university continued its successful career until 1900, when all correspondence work was closed because it had never been a success financially, owing to the smallness of the fees. Those who had so successfully carried out the plans of instruction felt less regret in giving up the work, because by that time other organizations were ready to carry it on.

So far, not many of the established colleges have taken up correspondence work. The University of Chicago was the first, and is still the most noteworthy example of what may be done. In 1904

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its faculty gave 242 courses in thirty different departments, and had an enrollment of 1,744 students, who were located in every state of the union, as well as in Canada, Mexico, Germany, Japan, Samoa and the Hawaiian Islands. No more than one-third of the work required for a degree may be done by correspondence, and only two studies may be taken at one time. No college preparatory courses are offered.

The University of Minnesota is reported to have begun the formation of a correspondence department similar to that of the University of Chicago. Theological seminaries and institutes, together with the American Institute of Sacred Literature and similar organizations, are giving correspondence instruction on religious subjects. So far has this tendency reached that in the new Religious Education Association a department of correspondence has been established.

The Armour Institute of Technology, through its ally the American School of Correspondence, is offering a large number of technical courses, for the successful completion of which full credit is given at the institute. It is possible for a person to prepare himself completely for the institute by means of correspondence, and a large number of ambitious young men are taking advantage of this opportunity. Pennsylvania State College has several gratuitous correspondence courses in agriculture, and Baylor University, Waco, Texas, has a limited correspondence department. Other schools, such as the University of Wisconsin and the University of West Virginia, have undertaken the work to a limited extent in some form and abandoned it for various reasons.

Students of the Interstate School of Correspondence, affiliated with Northwestern University, are given full credit at the College of Liberal Arts and the Professional Schools of the University in such academic studies as they complete in a satisfactory manner. The school offers no courses in the collegiate branches, and the university gives only entrance credits.

How widespread is the interest in this new method of education may be seen from the statistics gathered by this school. Out of a thousand students, 192 are over twenty-five years of age and 351 are between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-five. An unexpected condition is also to be seen in the fact that out of the same thousand pupils, 831 are already teachers, and of these only forty-seven are graduates of normal schools. The teachers are studying by correspondence for higher equipment, which will in turn make them better teachers. The conditions under which many of them work are startling. Five hundred and eighty-six had a private room for study, while the remainder worked in the room with the rest of the family; 569 had no reference books whatever excepting those sent with the courses of study, and 655 had no access to a library, public or private. Over a half of them had been out of school for more than a year, and a fourth of them for more than three years. Nearly two-thirds could give but one hour a day to study.

Besides those schools which are a part of or directly connected with a university, there are a number of private institutions that are perfectly reliable. The character of the instruction offered by them is of high order, because they have brought to their staff many of the successful teachers of the country. The International Correspondence Schools of Scranton, Pennsylvania, is the largest institution of this sort, and claims a total enrollment of some three hundred and fifty thousand students. Among others the Sprague Law School, of Detroit, Michigan, has had a long and successful career in its peculiar sphere.

It is evident from the facts given above that the new movement for education by correspondence is becoming increasingly important, and statistics show that the work is being done very largely among the class of people who most seriously need it. If we could assume that the public schools offered sufficient opportunity for children and youth, there still remain thousands of men and women anxious to increase their education, and for them the correspondence schools, whether private institutions or connected with universities, have alike shown an adaptability to meet these new conditions which is quite beyond the possibilities of educational institutions demanding residence of their pupils. It is for this reason if no other, that this latest phase of university extension, so unexpected fifteen years ago, demands and is receiving most careful attention from the friends of education.

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THE CANADIAN ELECTIONS

BY

ALBERT R. CARMAN

AUTHOR OF "THE PENSIONNAIRES."

THE pending Canadian general elections are the second which have taken place since the collapse of the Conservative party and the elevation of Sir Wilfrid Laurier to the Premiership eight years ago. These eight years, however, have been especially deadly both to men and to issues. The Manitoba school question, which was "paramount" in 1896, and which crippled the Conservatives in the English provinces while it was swept away by the popularity of Laurier in Quebec, is now never mentioned. Sir Charles Tupper, who led the Conservatives both in 1896 and 1900, is out of politics. Sir Oliver Mowat, who led the Ontario Liberals, is dead. Mr. Tarte, who rose to the altitude of an "issue" in 1900, is now out of the government and an ally of the Conservatives in Quebec. Mr. Blair, the strong man of New Brunswick, has left the government. Mr. Foster, the financial critic of the opposition, has been out of Parliament since 1900; and Sir Richard Cartwright, his old opponent, has practically surrendered the baton of Liberal leadership in Ontario to Sir William Mulock.

The two most strikingly new features of this campaign are the new Conservative leader, Mr. R. L. Borden, of Halifax, and the new "paramount" issue, the transcontinental railway policy. Mr. Borden has been in command of the Parliamentary Conservative party since 1900, and has done some very effective work, both as a critic of Liberal measures and as a daring originator of Conservative policies. The transcontinental railway question affords an instance of this. The government policy is set forth in a bargain with a new company called the Grand Trunk Pacific, which has the backing of the old Grand Trunk Railway and the coöperation of some new Canadian capitalists, such as Senator Cox. The government is to build an air line from Winnipeg to Quebec and then to Moncton, New Brunswick, where connection is had with both Halifax and St. John. This line will be leased to the Grand Trunk Pacific for fifty years at three per cent interest on its cost, the first seven years to be without interest. Then the company build their own line from Winnipeg to the Pacific Coast by way of Edmonton, the government guaranteeing their bonds for three-fourths of the cost

F. D. MONK
Manager of Conservative Campaign

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SIR WILFRID LAURIER
The Canadian Liberal Premier

of the road, the Grand Trunk guaranteeing bonds for the remaining fourth. The government agrees also to pay the interest on three-fourths of the cost of the mountain section of the road for seven years.

Mr. Borden proposes the government ownership of the whole road as an alternative proposition, and pledges himself to take possession for the nation, either by expropriation or otherwise, should he be successful in the coming elections. He argues that the country must, under the Liberal arrangement, assume the financial responsibility for nine-tenths of the cost, and urges that it should pay the other tenth and take the road. The boldness

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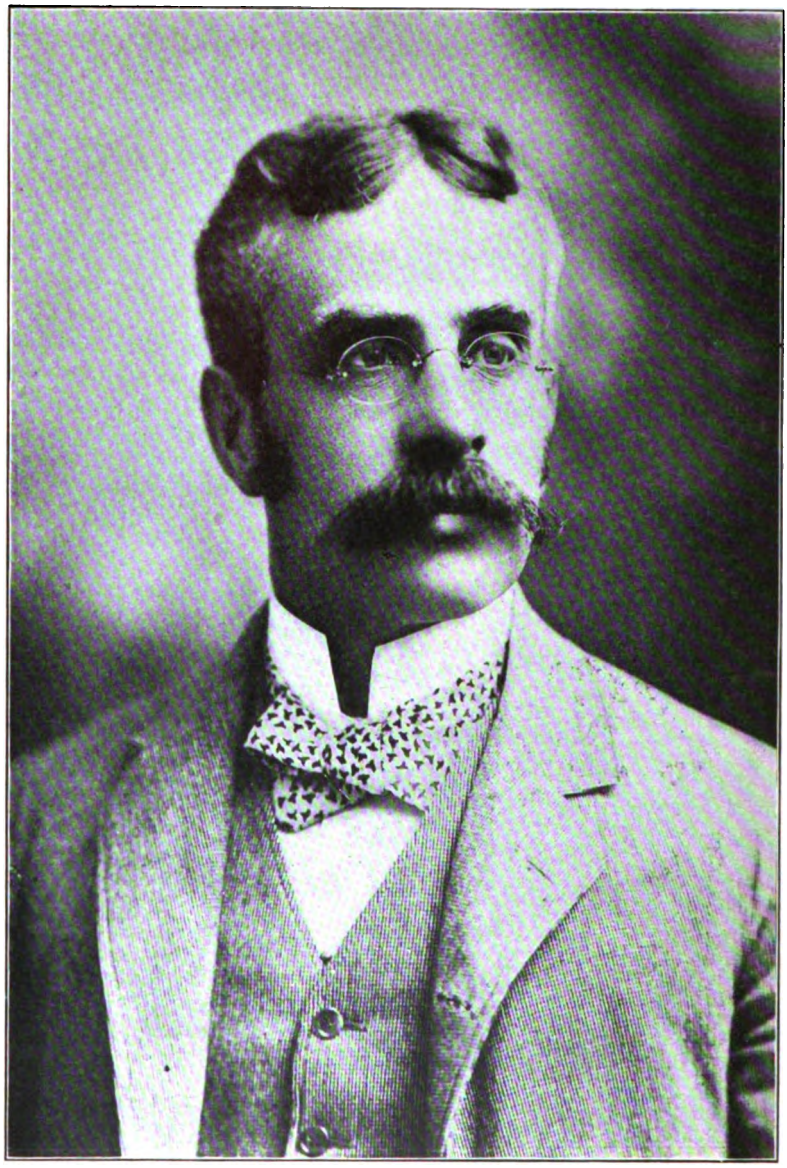

R. L. BORDEN
Conservative Candidate for the Premiership

of this policy shows Mr. Borden's talent for leadership; for it is not likely that the mouthpiece of a committee would advance so far. Mr. Blair was Minister of Railways in the government when this program was decided upon, and resigned to fight against it. He subsequently, however, took the chairmanship of the Federal Railway Commission and went out of politics.

The tariff will play some part in the election; but Mr. Fielding's pledge to hold an inquiry after polling day and then found a revision of the tariff on its findings, prevents the divergence on this point from becoming acute. The Con-

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Hon. Clifford Sifton

Sir William Mulock

W. S. Fielding

LIBERAL LEADERS IN THE CANADIAN CAMPAIGN

servatives frankly advocate higher protection; but the non-committal position of the Liberals lessens the impact of this movement. The Conservatives are also more militantly in favor of Chamberlain; but, again, the Liberals are in a waiting attitude. They favor the general principle of Chamberlainism, but they are not committed to the acceptance of any propositions in advance. Meanwhile, they are not blowing up the flame, but are letting Chamberlain fight his own battle. On the other hand, Mr. George E. Foster has already "stumped" the British cities for the preferential policy.

Reciprocity with the United States is not in any sense an issue. The Liberals, who were the reciprocity party thirteen years ago, now say that the next overtures must come from Washington. The general feeling is that Canada has, perhaps, made too many overtures, and there is now a well-nigh universal unwillingness even to discuss American reciprocity until Mr. Chamberlain has had a fair chance to see what he can persuade Great Britain to offer us. Our trade with Great Britain has revived amazingly, as the result of the Laurier preference, and a tariff treaty with the mother country would be most popular. Still Mr. Ross, Premier of Ontario, told the manufacturers in Montreal at the opening of the campaign that he still favored reciprocity with the United States.

The personality of Sir Wilfrid Laurier continues to be one of the most potent factors in the situation. It is thought that he is very powerful still with his compatriots in Quebec, who take a natural pride in having a French-Canadian Premier; and—personally—he is highly esteemed and well liked throughout the English provinces. The Conservative leader, Mr. Borden, has been industrious in gaining contact with the people throughout the Dominion; and his personality excites respect. Mr. Borden's chief lieutenant is Mr. Monk, a French Canadian with an English name; while his large contingent from Ontario has a group of fighting leaders. The Liberals are led by Mr. Fielding in the Maritime Provinces, Sir William Mulock in Ontario and Mr. Sifton in the West.

This election will somewhat shift the center of gravity of Parliament, the old provinces east of Lake Superior losing ten members and the West gaining ten. Of these Ontario loses six and the Maritime Provinces four, while Manitoba gains three, the territories six and British Columbia one. Still there will only be twenty-eight members, out of a total of 214, west of Lake Superior. Ontario and Quebec are yet the dominant partners, with their eighty-eight and sixty-five, respectively. At the last elections, Ontario went decisively Conservative, and Quebec, Nova Scotia, the West (except Manitoba) decisively Liberal. Mr. Blair carried New Brunswick, nine to five, while Manitoba and Prince Edward Island were divided fairly between the parties.

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MEN AND WOMEN OF THE MONTH

Durham White Stevens

Diplomatic Adviser of the Korean Government

THE appointment of Mr. Durham White Stevens, counselor of the Japanese legation at Washington, to act as diplomatic adviser to the foreign department of the Korean government, is an important step on Japan's part in the regeneration of the "Hermit Kingdom." Mr. Stevens' Oriental scholarship and the suavity, tact, courage and force he has shown in his long and varied experience in far eastern diplomacy command the utmost esteem in Japan and augur well for the future of the Korean foreign office. He was born in Washington, D. C., in 1854. After graduating from Oberlin in 1871 he studied law and was admitted to the bar in his native city. In 1873 President Grant appointed him secretary of the American legation to Japan. From this office he resigned in 1883 and shortly after returning to the United States he became English secretary to the Japanese legation at Washington. The following year he was called to Tokyo for service in the Japanese foreign office. When Count Inouye was sent as ambassador to Korea, in the winter of 1884-1885, to negotiate a settlement for violence against Minister Takezoye and other Japanese subjects, Mr. Stevens accompanied him. For the services the American rendered in this connection the Mikado conferred on him the decoration of the third class of the Order of the Rising Sun. During the Chinese War of 1894-95, Mr. Stevens rendered services to Japan that earned him the decoration of second class of the Order of the Golden Treasure. The second class decoration of the Rising Sun was also bestowed upon him. During the last five years the imperial government has often recalled Mr. Stevens to Japan for special service in public affairs. In 1900-1901 he was engaged in Hawaii, securing a settlement of the claims of certain Japanese subjects for destruction of their property in 1899 on account of the prevalence of the bubonic plague there.

THE CROWN PRINCE OF GERMANY AND THE DUCHESS CECILE

Duchess Cecile of Mecklenburg-Schwerin

The Future German Empress

EMPEROR WILLIAM'S recent announcement of the betrothal of his eldest son, Crown Prince Frederick William, and Duchess Cecile Augustine Marie of Mecklenburg-Schwerin is fraught with special importance to Germans; for the marriage will form a closer bond than has hitherto existed between Teutonic and Slavic Germany. Mecklenburg-Schwerin, of which Cecile's only brother is sovereign grand duke, is not only Slavic in population, but has long been the principal stronghold in Germany of Russian interests, and hostile to Emperor William. Cecile is a daughter of one of the oldest dynasties in Europe and bears among her many titles that of Princess of the Wends. The people over whom her ancestors ruled were known to the Norsemen as Wends, to the Anglo-Saxons as Wendels and to the Romans as Vandals. Her relationship

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among the royal houses of Europe is very large. Her brother married the daughter of the Duke of Cumberland, claimant to the crown of Hanover and Brunswick; her eldest sister married Crown Prince Christian of Denmark. The Duchess Cecile is eighteen years old, tall and slight, with brown eyes and blonde hair. While her disposition is sunny and sweet and her tastes domestic, she is thought to have inherited much of the cleverness and strength of character of her great-great-grandmother, Queen Louise of Prussia, who played a heroic part in the German uprising against Napoleon in the beginning of the nineteenth century. Her girlhood has been passed partly at her mother's beautiful villa at Cannes and partly at her brother's palace in Schwerin. In the latter abode her environment was such that many Germans are now apprehensive lest she may exert a reactionary influence on her future husband and tend to impede national progress and the growth of popular liberty. Duchess Cecile has been reared as simply as the daughter of any country gentleman, and is a good housekeeper. She speaks English, French and Russian fluently and is fond of riding and driving.

Prince Peter Sviatopolk-Mirski

Von Plehve's Successor

PRINCE PETER SVIATOPOLK-MIRSKI is a man of humane disposition. His recent appointment as minister of the interior of the Russian Empire is the second time he has been chosen to succeed a tyrannical administrator. When von Wahl, the brutal governor-general of Vilna, was assassinated by a workman for his cruelty to Jewish laborers, Prince Peter was sent to appease and conciliate the disturbed town. Now he is chosen to make some sort of reparation for the wrongs wrought by von Plehve. This action on the part of the Czar is a recognition of the necessity of granting moderate reforms and a mild administration in order to quiet popular agitation and win the confidence of the financial magnates.

Prince Peter Sviatopolk-Mirski belongs to one of the most prominent families of the Russian nobility. He claims descent from Rurik, the reputed Swedish founder of the Russian monarchy. Though long

PETER SVIATOPOLK-MIRSKI
Russia's Minister of the Interior

settled in Poland the family is of orthodox faith. Prince Peter is only forty-seven years old, but has had a distinguished career. In 1875 he graduated from the imperial page corps. Two years later he went with his father, Prince Dmitri, one of the most notable warriors of the past generation, to fight in the Russo-Turkish War. For gallantry during this struggle, Prince Peter was made a captain in 1878 and afterward aide-de-camp to the Emperor. Later he entered the war college and graduated in 1881 with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. As a staff officer of the tenth army corps he showed strong administrative talents and was raised to the rank of major-general. He was governor of Penza, 1895-97, then of Ekaterinoslav until 1900, when he was made assistant minister of the interior under the late M. Sipiaguine. In this office he continued for a short time after his superior's assassination, but his moderate tendencies were considered out of harmony with the drastic von Plehve. However, Prince Peter's administration as governor of Vilna during the last two years has been highly successful. He is married and has two children. The

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PETER KARAGEORGEVITCH
King of Servia

prince has given out that he will govern the department of the interior conservatively, with a view to promoting the welfare of all classes of subjects, including the Jews and Finns. He is a firm partisan of decentralization and proposes to give the provincial communal assemblies extensive powers to regulate their local affairs. The Russian press, including a conservative Jewish organ, unanimously approves of Prince Peter's appointment as likely to relieve the critical internal condition of the empire.

Right Hon. George Houston Reid

The New Australian Federal Premier

"THE true inward policy of the Labor party is first to trample on their own fellow workers; and, when they have driven them into the unions, to use the power they get by overturning every principle on which the national life of this country is founded. . . . I intend to stand right across the path of this party." With such words as these does Mr. Reid, the new prime minister of Australia, usher in a reactionary rule in harmony with the governor-general after the fiasco made during the brief régime of Labor Premier Watson and his Labor cabinet. George Houston Reid was born in 1845 at Johnstone, Renfrewshire, Scotland, the son of a Presbyterian minister. In 1852 he went with his parents to Melbourne, Australia, and five years later the family removed to New South Wales. Having entered the civil service of that colony in 1864, he was appointed clerk of correspondence in the treasury in September, 1869, and secretary to the attorney-general in 1878. The following year he was admitted to the New South Wales bar. He first became widely known by the publication of his "Five Free Trade Essays" and "New South Wales, the Mother-Colony of the Australias." In 1880 he was elected to the Legislative Assembly for East Sydney and still retains his seat. Mr. Reid was minister of public instruction to the Stuart Ministry of New South Wales in 1883-84. At the end of 1891 he was elected leader of the opposition to the Dibbs government in the colony. Here he succeeded Sir Henry Parkes, who held different views in regard to intercolonial federation as embodied in the Commonwealth Bill. At the overthrow of Sir George Dibbs' ministry in 1894 he succeeded Sir Henry Parkes as Premier of New South Wales. The next year the general election gave him a large majority to carry out his free trade policy. In 1897 he attended the Diamond Jubilee in England and was made a Privy Councilor. In the general election of 1898 he fought against the platform of direct taxation and the confederation of all Australia. Since the confederation he has been the leader of the opposition in the Federal Parliament. The reactionary attitude that he has shown since he was called upon to form a ministry of his own is in striking contrast to his whole previous policy. Nothing but disgust with the extreme radicalism whose legislative experiments have overthrown in quick succession a Liberal and a Labor ministry, could have driven Mr. Reid at this late day into the Conservative ranks.

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THE MAKING OF TO-MORROW

HOW THE WORLD OF TO-DAY IS PREPARING FOR THE WORLD OF TO-MORROW

Chicago Employers' Association Employment Bureau

AN employment bureau which supplies positions to employes without fee is not altogether a new idea, but as a factor in the work of the Employers' Association, an employment bureau is an innovation.

Merchants of Chicago have been receiving, during the past few weeks, packages bearing the imprint of the Association, each containing a placard, reproduced herewith, which seems to be self-explanatory. The object of the bureau was explained in an accompanying circular letter which also set forth the mutual advantages, to merchants, of organization. Portions relating to the bureau were as follows:

Employment is furnished employes without any cost to them, and employers are promptly furnished with help.

All applicants for employment are carefully investigated regarding their skill, production, reasons for leaving last place of employment, character, etc.

In this way the best classes of employes can be furnished.

During the time that this agency has been in operation many applications have been received and positions filled.

The following is a partial list of the trades represented by those who have sought employment: (Ninety-seven trades were here enumerated.)

We desire the coöperation of all employers in Chicago, and would ask you to have the enclosed card hung up conspicuously where your employes are engaged.

In this way the employment agency will be made a greater success by inducing men to register with it.

This employment bureau is not run for profit, but is maintained from the general fund of the Employers' Association. It is licensed by the State Department of Labor, has given a bond, and is being operated in accordance with the provisions of the labor law of 1903.

In case employes are laid off by you for lack of work, we would ask you to suggest to them that they come to this agency and register. We enclose small cards which you can hand to such workmen.

We respectfully suggest that you instruct those who do your hiring to give a preference to employes who are registered with our bureau.

Pink tickets, giving the address of the bureau and calling attention to the fact that no fees are charged for registration, were also included in the package, these cards to be handed to employes.

Advantages to both employer and employe were evident, as the result of such a bureau under the auspices of the Employers' Association, but just what bearing this might have upon the question of Labor vs. Capital was not altogether evident, and some, particularly employes, were at first a little reluctant to patronize the bureau. A few even went so far as to say that this was a direct move against organized labor and as evidence of this was cited the fact that the question, "union or non-union," appears on the application blank, the inference being that there was intention to discriminate against union labor. In this connection it may be noted, however, that this question also appears on the application of the State Free Employment Bureau, and there, as here, is merely included as a matter of information. It is interesting to note that the registrations at the Employers' Association bureau, which now average forty per day, include both union and non-union men, and employes supplied with positions are about equally divided between these two classes. No distinction is made in filling requests for help, applicants being sent as the names happen to come on the list, except when employers specify "union" or "non-union" men, in which cases only reference is made to this part of the application blank in selecting the applicants sent.

Each applicant is asked to give two references, and to the employers or persons named confidential blanks are sent, asking when, if at all, applicant was employed by them, what was the quality of

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his skill, why he left, and requesting information regarding character. No reference to labor questions is made upon this blank, the form of which is notably simple. The bureau is conducted under the direction of Mr. Frederick W. Job, secretary of the Employers' Association.

Among benefits to employers, derived from having a bureau under their jurisdiction, one of the most important is that the help thus obtained is of a high class, in both character and ability. An increasing list of employed persons whose records are good is being compiled, in the approved applications, from day to day; also a list of persons regarded as undesirable, which enables employers, by consulting the bureau, to recognize worthy or unworthy applicants.

On the other hand, the benefits of this bureau to the employed would seem even greater, proportionately. Not only are good positions supplied to them without fee, but as members of the Association, representing the largest business interests of the city, as well as many merchants not members of the Association, have agreed to give preference to employes registered at and furnished by this bureau, a good demand for help is always to be found there. The fact that the bureau, though only established on June 20, 1904, has averaged to fill twenty positions a day, places it almost in the light of a philanthropy. It has proven a boon to many union men, this summer, suffering from the effects of strikes.

That this bureau is of real service to both employer and employed is acknowledged, even by those representing labor interests, while employers using the service express themselves in terms of highest satisfaction, particularly with regard to the quality of employes furnished by the bureau. HELEN MAR SHAW.

London's Home for Lost and Starving Dogs

"I WONDER if nothing can be done for it. I do hope no street boy will see it, for in that case I wouldn't give much chance for its life," said one woman to another, both of whom had crossed the street, attracted by the appealing eyes of a stray dog which had taken shelter in a London doorway. The women were utter

LONDON'S RESCUE HOME FOR DOGS

strangers to each other, but the stray dog was the bond of nature that proved they were akin. The second woman told her new-found friend that she had often wished something could be done for stray dogs, but that she was almost in despair as she did not know which way to turn or what to do.

"Well, let's see what we two can do," said the first speaker; "we can at least interest our friends, for I know many of mine are just as deeply concerned as I am."

Such was the simple beginning of a definite effort to help and succor dumb animals. The result was the opening of the London Temporary Home for Lost and Starving Dogs in 1860. To-day the capitalization of the land and kennels amounts to $325,000, with His Majesty, Edward VII., King of England, its chief patron.

Wishing to visit the home for myself, I made my way one morning to Battersea, where the institution is situated. Its object is to rescue lost dogs from misery and starvation; to clear the streets from the nuisance and dangers of straying, ownerless dogs; to substitute for cruel processes of destroying life, a speedy, painless and therefore merciful and scientific method, when killing is absolutely necessary; to find owners and suitable homes for many useful and valuable animals; to prevent exorbitant rewards being extorted by unprincipled and designing persons for the recovery of lost favorites; and to restore dogs to their rightful owners upon payment of little more than the cost of keep during their residence at the refuge. The

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municipal authorities, recognizing its value, give financial aid by the payment of six pence for each dog admitted. On an average, twenty-four thousand are annually taken in. Since its organization 811,000 dogs have been received.

The head keeper, who has been there for twenty-seven years, is usually the cicerone. To a lover of dogs this typical British cockney will open his heart and talk eloquently of the animals in his care. His perfect control over them is wonderful. In the wagons sent out all over the city, about three hundred dogs are daily collected and placed in the hands of this man and his nine assistants.

The very strong sentiment against vivisection created by the opponents of such practices serves to benefit the animals received in the home. Stringent measures are taken to protect them from this fate, worse than death. On no account are dogs sold for experimentation, or for any purpose, physiological, pathological, toxological; nor to any person giving his address at a hospital, nor to animal trainers. No animals may be taken away alive except the claimed or sold. The great number of dogs admitted every day makes it imperative that the kennels be cleared frequently in order to make room for new arrivals. This is done in several ways. Fine dogs unclaimed after a certain time are sold, but great care is exercised by the committee to make sure of good homes and kind masters. In all cases the purchaser must give the reason for his wish to buy, and if the committee is not perfectly satisfied it may arbitrarily refuse to sell.

Where such numbers of them are gathered together, many dogs will be diseased or vicious. To find a method, both humanitarian and effective, for their final disposal, was a problem. In its solution the aid of modern medical progress has been invoked. After a long period of study and experimenting, the late Sir Benjamin Richardson, the discoverer of the application of laughing gas, devised a process for the painless extinction of life which one of the officers said in his annual address was "so effective that some of us would like to die by that means when our time comes." The doomed dogs are collected in a cage having two compartments, one for small, the other for large dogs, capable of holding one hundred at a time. It is then run into an air-tight chamber previously charged with narcotic vapor. A few moments later when the cage is withdrawn, the dogs appear to be

THE COUNTRY HOME OF LONDON'S LOST DOGS

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THE CAT BOARDING-HOUSE

peacefully sleeping, so quickly and painlessly has death come to them. The bodies are then cremated and reduced to bone powder, which is used as a fertilizer. For twenty-three years, until the painless process was invented, dogs had been killed by the administration of prussic acid. This method, besides being difficult and disagreeable to apply, was fraught with danger to the keepers. The home authorities consider it almost miraculous that no human fatalities occurred in the handling of this deadly poison.

Overcrowding has necessitated the purchase of another home, a fresh-air home, as it were. This is located about eight and one-half miles in the country and is designed to receive fine dogs which are unclaimed, but are too valuable to be put to death. Quite a snug sum is realized from the sale of these animals.

The home is supported by voluntary contributions. A long list of subscribers is headed by no less a personage than King Edward himself. Another source of revenue comes from the cats which are received as boarders, when there is room for them. Aristocratic dogs may also board there. Both cats and aristocrats, however, must make way for the poor strays and waifs when space is limited, for the care of the derelicts is the primary object of this charity.

MARY RANKIN CRANSTON.

Iowa School Teachers Demand Better Salaries

WILL the principles and methods of the trades union succeed in a national organization of teachers? Will the much-needed higher salaries be secured by an organization which can order strikes, dictate terms and determine the conduct of the public schools of the nation? These questions are answered affirmatively by the officers and promoters of the Teachers' National Protective Association, recently organized among rural school teachers in Iowa. The association is unique for two reasons. First, it is said to be the only general organization in the United States for the mutual protection and financial benefit of public school teachers. Second: It places public school teachers upon the same plane with mechanics and artisans, so far as their rights and the power to demand those rights are concerned.

The organization is destined by its promoters to be national. Already the movement has reached the point where determined opposition has been aroused from the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa. The lines are already being closely drawn in some districts between the teachers and the county superintendents and directors. The constitution provides for the organization of local associations whenever twenty-five or more persons in any county, in any state, shall have become members of the association. The acting presidents of such local associations shall be the delegates to the general association, which shall meet at least once a year to consider ways and means and the welfare of the profession. These local associations are to fix the minimum salary rates to be paid in their respective counties: "The local association shall have the right and au thority to determine what shall be a rea sonable minimum compensation for th services of its members as teachers, subjec to the control of the general association a above provided, and until the organiza tion and action of such local associations, the parties who have or who may make application for such membership declare

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that the reasonable minimum scale for wages per month for their services shall be as follows: For teachers holding first-class certificates the sum of $40; for teachers holding second-class certificates the sum of $37.50; for teachers holding third-class certificates the sum of $35."

In 1903 the average monthly salary of school teachers in Iowa (which state a few years ago ranked first in the matter of literacy and is now near the top) was $32.60 for women and $45.99 for men. The preceding year it had been $30.17 for women and $43.66 for men, figures nearer the average for the past ten years than the 1903 figures. In the same state laundresses earn $30 a month, ordinary unskilled day laborers $43.75, carpenters $50, stenographers and office assistants from $25 to $75. In 1867 Iowa school teachers were paid on an average of $35.88 for men and $24.64 for women. In the thirty-six years intervening until 1903 the salaries of the men teachers increased only twenty-eight per cent and of women teachers thirty-two per cent. In the same length of time the wages of unskilled labor were almost doubled. In the majority of the ninety-nine counties $30 is an average salary and $40 is a good one. Even at these salaries there are more applications than positions. In all there are 29,287 teachers employed in the public schools of Iowa, 3,733 men at an average salary of $45.99 and 25,554 women at an average salary of $32.60.

In no other state could the agitation for higher salaries for school teachers be waged so appropriately as in Iowa. The average of illiterates among white males of voting age in Massachusetts, outside of cities of a population of 25,000 or over, is 6.6 per cent. In Iowa it is 2.6 per cent. Yet Massachusetts pays its public school teachers an average monthly salary of $140.94 for men and $52.75 for women. In the twelve states generally classified as the North Central Division (Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas) the range of salaries in 1902 for men teachers was from $66.80 in Indiana to $40.03 in South Dakota, with Iowa fourth from the bottom of the list with an average of $43.66; and for women teachers was from $54.18 in Illinois to $30.17 in Iowa.

State Superintendent Riggs, who opposes the movement, believes that when school teachers are worth more they will receive more. He advocates, first, a change in the existing laws so that certificates, of whatever grade, issued in any one county of the state would be accepted in the other ninety-eight counties without a new examination; second, a reduction in the aggregate number of certificates issued. He believes that then a teacher unable to secure the salary he or she deems equitable could remove to another county where such a salary might be secured. A similar law to that advocated by Superintendent Riggs has been in effect in Minnesota for five years, with the result that salaries have increased from fifteen to thirty per cent and the standard of efficiency has been raised. F. G. MOOREHEAD.

Public Clubhouses in Parks

IN several American cities an attempt has been made to supply the want of social centers in the crowded districts by opening the schoolhouses in the evenings. Even the poor accommodations thus afforded for free lectures, reading clubs and other forms of popular education have been eagerly utilized. A few new school buildings have been constructed with a view to such use. Chicago, however, is probably the first American city to plan on a large scale for the comfort and happiness of the people by providing clubhouses in small parks solely for the use of the public. This is believed to be a legitimate extension of the principle upon which gymnasiums, natatoriums and lunchrooms have been established in the parks. The South Park Commissioners are about to lay out fourteen new small parks on the south side of Chicago, chiefly in the districts inhabited by working people; and they propose to erect in each of these parks a large and well-equipped building to serve as a center for the social activities of the district. The plans, already drawn by architects, provide for buildings of various sizes, each of which will contain a large assembly hall, gymnasiums for men and women, with lockers, baths, a swimming-pool, small clubrooms, a lunchroom, and a branch station of the Public Library. The assembly-room will be for the free use of

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the public, due application for such use being, of course, required. Political and religious organizations will be debarred from using the halls, for obvious reasons. The smaller clubrooms will serve as meeting places for boys' clubs, athletic societies, mothers' meetings, etc. If the present plans of the board are carried out, these buildings will be large, handsome structures, which will be in every way an object lesson in beauty and cleanliness to the people who use them. The estimated cost is from $60,000 to $90,000 each. Some opposition to this elaborate and expensive plan has been aroused, and it may be that the details will have to be somewhat curtailed. It is to be hoped, however, that the excellent ideas of the commission may be carried out so far as the comprehensive scheme adopted is concerned. Chicago park boards have been accused of spending vast sums of money on unnecessary employes and supplies. Surely no rational and public-spirited citizen should object to an investment so immediately productive as these clubhouses will be if properly managed.

Modern Marble Quarrying

ITALY, which has been producing material for statuary and other sculptured forms in marble for centuries, contains over six hundred quarries, but to this day the masses of white are secured almost entirely by the use of explosives. For this reason much of the marble is wasted and many of the most valuable deposits are so covered with the débris from blasting that the cost of removing the waste material is greater than the value of the marble itself. A better way has been found in this country.

INTERIOR OF A VERMONT MARBLE QUARRY
Nearly 200 feet in depth. Showing the regular steps cut by the machine

From a little stream which flows through southwestern Vermont, comes most of the power which is utilized in this industry. Fortunately, it passes through the locality which contains some of the principal beds. This water power is em-

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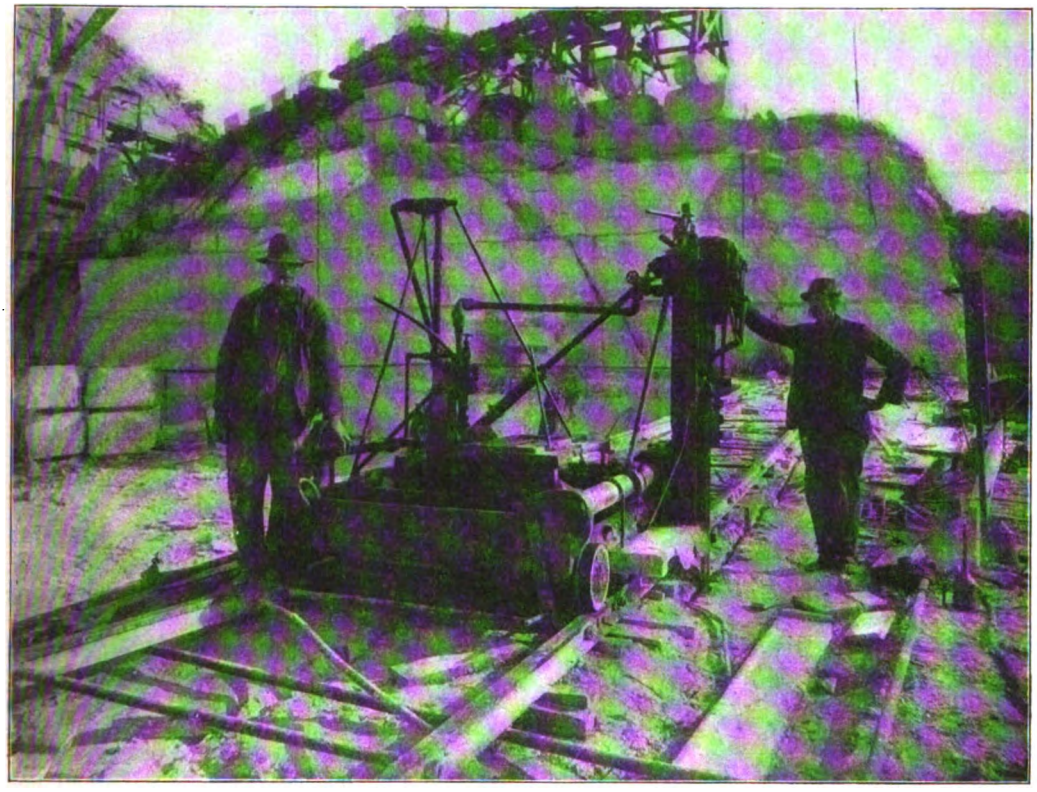
ployed to saw the marble, as it comes from the quarries, into suitable blocks, while an electric current, generated from it, furnishes power to transport the marble from place to place and to drive the mechanism which removes it from the beds. From some of these pits blocks have been taken for over twenty-five years, and the bottom layer is nearly three hundred feet from the surface. Some of the underground chambers have their ceilings, sides and floors of marble.



A STEAM CHANNELING MACHINE
Showing how it cuts into the marble bed from the top

In modern marble quarrying, as performed in Vermont, what is known as a channeling machine is used, which is operated by electric or steam power. It is placed upon the top of the marble bed and punches a hole, from four to twelve feet in depth, by means of a series of chisels which are clamped together so as to form one cutting tool. When the chisels have reached the depth required, the machine is moved forward on its temporary track. In this way the bed is "blocked out," as it might be said, in parallel cuts extending from side to side. These are divided into the lengths required by steam and pneumatic drills, which bore a series of holes, after which the block can easily be detached by a kind of wedge which is driven into the bottom. In this manner the marble may be removed from a deposit a hundred feet square and a hundred feet in depth, with practically no waste, leaving such a formation that the sides of the quarry appear as if built of blocks of marble regularly laid. The channeling machines require about twelve horse-power, and cut from fifty to one hundred square feet of marble every ten hours. It is due to their use that one company alone quarries enough material every month to erect a large office building, as its output is no less than five thousand tons.

Some of the largest electric cranes in the world are used in handling the blocks of marble, owing to their great weight, for they range as high as twenty-five and

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THE ELECTRIC CRANE USED FOR PILING THE BLOCKS

thirty tons. At West Rutland, Vermont, where the largest quarries are located, is a crane which has a total lifting capacity of fifty tons. It is provided with two trollies of twenty-five horse-power each, and each trolley is equipped with a twenty horse-power hoisting machine.

D. A. WILLEY.

A School for Locksmiths and Blacksmiths

A NOTABLE industrial school with an extensive curriculum is that established at Rosswein in Saxony. It was founded in 1894 by the combined blacksmith and locksmith guilds of Saxony, and admits only students who have completed the courses in one of the six schools specially founded for the training of young men as locksmiths and blacksmiths, by the guilds of those trades in Burgstadt, Grossenhain, Frankenberg, Meissen, Glauchau and Zittau. Annual support is given these schools by the Saxon government, supplementary to that furnished by these guilds and the contributions of private individuals.

Nearly all the German states have provided grants for needy and worthy young locksmiths desiring to attend the school at Rosswein. The one hundred or more students in attendance are under a faculty comprising one director, seven specially trained instructors and two technical experts for the workshop. There is a good scientific library. The instruction in the school is supplemented by excursions to various places for the purpose of studying the machinery and methods employed in large manufacturing plants. Every student, before graduation, must produce some hand-made article which shows exceptional skill in workmanship and design. At the end of each year these articles, with sketches, drawings and models form an exhibit which is placed before the public in several cities of the German Empire.

ANNIE E. S. BEARD.

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BOOKS AND READING

Christianity at Its Source *

The translation of this important work of Wernle is certainly one to be recommended to all thoughtful students of theology, whether professional or lay. In it one will discover perhaps more distinctly than in any other work yet published the present tendencies in New Testament investigation. In a word, these tendencies are the recognition of the entire early Christian literature as historical documents largely conditioned by the thought of the times in which their authors lived. Historical as distinct from systematic investigation consists in tracing the genetic relations of this thought both within the New Testament itself and with the contemporary thought. The work of Professor Wernle is a striking illustration of what may be expected from the application of historical rather than philological and theological methods to early church history. It covers the same ground as ordinary treatises on Biblical theology, but from a different point of view and with that perspective and sensitiveness to historical atmosphere which are possible only in the case of one trained in historical methods.

Especial attention should be directed to the first volume in which there is the historical resolution, if one may use the term, of New Testament thought. Professor Wernle recognizes clearly the fact that Christianity is formally the outcome of attaching the eschatalogical messianic faith of the Jews to the historical Jesus. He sees in historical Christianity the struggle of two forces: first, the formal interpretative element born of contemporary thought; and, second, the genuinely religious thought born of experience. In his masterly treatment we are made to see clearly the great struggle which marked the history of the church of the first and second century between these two elements. In the rise of theology and in the rise of church polity, Professor Wernle shows that each modifies the other, but with an unfortunate tendency toward laying emphasis upon the formal rather than upon the experimental. His estimate of the work of Jesus in many cases is singularly happy, both in its recognition of its limitations and its spirit. In the case of Paul he fails to recognize the importance of the material he has already so well exploited in the case of the gospels, viz, the messianic hope, but in general his estimate of Paulinism is balanced and appreciative. One virtue of the book is its lack of technicalities. So far from being dry, theological reading, its style is luminous and thoroughly attractive. It is a work which must be reckoned with. Even those to whom it comes at first as a shock will do well to master its contents if for nothing more than to correct the too universal dogmatic purpose with which too many come to the study of the New Testament.

* The Beginnings of Christianity. By Paul Wernle. Translated by G. A. Bieneman and edited with an introduction by W. D. Morrison. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Vol. I, pp. xvi, 389; Vol. II, pp. xiii, 376.

The Atonement and the Modern Mind. James Denney. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. Pp. 159. $1 net.

In a way this book is a supplement to the author's previous volume upon "The Death of Christ." It is characterized by the same method and purpose, and will doubtless appeal to those who are ready to accept description for definition. Professor Denney does not assume an historical point of view, and is singularly bound by the determination to reach by exegesis results which he thinks are true. He does not distinctly define "atonement"; he does not define sin; he does not define substitution. His whole method is that which unfortunately characterizes so much theological thought, namely, to assume that one's readers know what the atonement is, and proceed to tell them what it is not. With such a method it is easy to show that the modern mind does not but ought to accept his view.

Professor Denney's conception of the atonement is revelatory, a demonstration of the fact that God is love. He neglects the fundamental belief of Paul, namely, that Jesus was to fulfil the messianic expectations of the apostles, and accordingly attributes to the apostle philosophical generalizations which he would hardly recognize. To offset these serious blemishes, his work

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is marked by a good literary style, cautious liberalism and religious earnestness.

Greater America. By Archibald R. Colquhoun. New York: Harper & Brothers. Pp. x, 436. $2.50 net.

All persons interested in imperialism should read this volume. For once, the expansion of the United States is so treated as to fall into its true perspective. Greater America is the expanding United States, its influence on the Pacific, the Caribbean, in South America and Canada. One can hardly expect absolute precision at every point in such a comprehensive survey, and Mr. Colquhoun has done well to keep himself to broad impressions rather than to details. A good illustration of this is in the chapter upon relations with Canada. He does not believe that the Americanization of Canada is either imminent or desirable, but, recognizing the fact that Americans may think otherwise, Mr. Colquhoun looks with some suspicion upon the recent American immigration into western Canada. The chief bulwark against union of Canada and the United States he discovers in the loyalty of Canada to Great Britain, and believes it will be better for Canada to become an independent nation than to remain either a colony or become a part of the United States. Some of Mr. Colquhoun's opinions are especially valuable because of his acquaintance with the East. Greater America, as he is pleased to call it, is ready to take advantage of the new Asiatic trade, provided only it will utilize the experience of Great Britain and treat Orientals as Orientals. He criticizes at this point our Philippine policy as liable to plunge the Filipinos into the vices of overcivilization. Altogether, the volume is an exceedingly valuable handbook of important facts connected with the recent expansion of America, and its criticisms, while not always pleasant to our self-esteem, will bear careful consideration. One thing is true, as Mr. Colquhoun insists: The United States can not proceed farther along the line of expansion set by the last ten years without becoming involved in international problems and without being compelled to assume international obligations.

History of Education in the United States. By Edwin Grant Dexter. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 656. $2 net.

As if to forestall an obvious criticism, Professor Dexter explains in his preface that it was not his purpose to write a philosophical interpretation of American educational development, but to supply in convenient form a large body of facts to be used in instruction. Teachers of education will know how to value such a time-saving volume to set before their students instead of sending them to scores of state reports and special histories for the elementary facts with which every pupil should be acquainted.

Although the summary of American education which can be contained in a single volume is necessarily lacking in the larger perspective possible in more extended discussions, the conspectus has its advantages. It sets before the reader at once educational phenomena as dissimilar as the old New England district school, the western state universities, the old-fashioned lyceums, the modern summer schools and Chautauquas. School laws of the eastern states handed down from colonial days appear side by side with the latest educational legislation of the far West. Amid all this diversity there are principles of unity which clearly differentiate American education from that of the older nations. Professor Dexter, with the aid of his graduate students, has compiled a record which carries the reader from 1630 down to the present year. By the use of a carefully arranged system of marginal notes and bibliographical sections he has made it possible for the book to be used in several ways according to the teacher's preference. Tables derived from the government reports and other reliable sources supplement the narrative.

Adventures Among Pictures. By C. Lewis Hind. London: A. & C. Black. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xxii, 302.

Most of the brief papers which go to make up this delightful volume appeared in the *Academy* while the author was editor of that journal. They all present unconventional and a thoroughly delicate treatment of art subjects from the point of view of the cultured connoisseur. Any one who will read them, be he never so much a Philistine, will find himself unconsciously but steadily drawn toward the author's sympathies, and sharing his appreciation of sincere and simple art. The volume is in fact a thesaurus of rapid criticism of the sort that you would get from a man of culture as you were walking through the galleries with him. It is not history, it is not philosophy of art, but it is genuinely illuminating criticism of the strong and weak points of schools and painters. The text is reinforced by excellent illustrations, many of them in color.

Maria Edgeworth. By the Hon. Emily Lawless. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 220. 75 cents.

Hobbes. By Leslie Stephen. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 244. 75 cents.

Two new volumes in the English Men of Letters series sustain the high reputation of this biographical library, and are more than usually readable. Maria Edgeworth is a novelist whose vogue has utterly passed away, and is unlikely to have any revival such as has been witnessed in the cases of Miss Austen and the Brontes. But her personality was so interesting that the Hon. Emily Lawless has succeeded in writing a life which is more fascinating than a novel. Without any illusions as to the literary rank of her heroine, Miss Lawless has a lively sense of humor, a perception of the ludicrous and the pathetic in the varied domestic circumstances of the Edgeworths, and a love for Ireland and its people which make possible a biography of unusual charm. The reader who opens its pages with but the most languid interest in Maria Edgeworth and her old-fashioned fiction is not likely

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to lay the book down without following its story to the end.

The biography of Hobbes was the last work of Sir Leslie Stephen's life. It treats briefly the career of the author of "Leviathan," for which indeed the materials are none too abundant, and discusses at considerable length the philosophy of this great though eccentric thinker. Hobbes has been called the Herbert Spencer of his age, and in not a few points the similarity is worth noting — his passion for generalizing and working out a system including fields with which he was not familiar, his egotism, his boldness, his attitude toward the unknown. Of course, his political philosophy is as far as possible removed from Spencer's, and forms the greatest barrier between him and the modern reader. The student of philosophy can not bridge the gap between Bacon and Locke without some study of this strange figure of the seventeenth century, and Sir Leslie Stephen is a competent and delightful guide.

Connectives of English Speech. By James C. Fernald. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. Pp. 324. $1.50.

At first thought it might seem difficult to write a book of over three hundred pages on English prepositions and conjunctions, without pedantry. But Mr. Fernald's treatment is anything but pedantic, far from diffuse, and yet it makes a good-sized book. Not only does he furnish full examples from English literature for the many idiomatic uses of all the connectives, but he also adds not a little valuable information as to the proper prepositions to use with certain classes of verbs, and other necessary facts of good usage missing from most dictionaries and grammars. He discourages the attempt to maintain distinctions constantly disregarded by good writers, believing that the function of the grammarian is to register good usage rather than to change the habits of cultured writers and speakers. The manual is useful for the professional writer and for all teachers of English grammar and composition.

How the United States Became a Nation. By John Fiske. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 254. $1.

When John Fiske turned aside from his larger historical works to the task or recreation of writing an elementary sketch, he displayed those same qualities which made him great in the other and larger sphere — perfect clearness, a picturesque style, sound historical judgment. This brief history of the United States from 1789 to 1865 can be read through in a couple of hours, yet sums up with masterly perspective the leading steps in the making of the nation. As now reissued, with many admirable illustrations, it should serve a twofold purpose as supplementary or collateral reading in the schools and as a means of refreshing the recollection of those who have left school behind them.

The Common Lot. By Robert Herrick. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 426. $1.50.

There are few American writers whose work has been watched more closely, and with larger hope on the part of those who know literature when they see it, than Robert Herrick. In "The Real World" he all but produced a great novel. In seriousness and in breadth of treatment it was so far in advance of "The Web of Life" as to promise that his next volume would be genuinely great. "The Common Lot" has more than met this expectation. In his earlier work Mr. Herrick showed remarkable penetration in describing the perplexities and disintegrations of our modern life. In "The Real World" he gave us a not quite convincing study of the development of a self-mastered personality. In "The Common Lot" he has made a study of the deterioration of an architect, a man of talent, under commercialism, that is fairly startling, but he has also shown how such a lost soul can be saved. If Francis Jackson Hart is not drawn from life, he is certainly true to life, and, fortunately for us poor humans, his wife, with her insistence upon ideals other than luxury, is real also. Mr. Herrick has never created—if indeed, he did create her—so fine a woman. A few years ago Mr. Herrick would very likely have closed his story with the downfall of his architect hero, but in nothing is the advance which he has made better shown than in the fact that in the present volume he shows how a man ruined by commercialism and the desire for luxuries can be saved through a wife's devotion. Nor is it mere reformation; it is regeneration that Mr. Herrick describes; not with the insistence upon religious and ethical ideals that some might have preferred, but none the less an actual regeneration. You can see the new man shape himself.

But the story is something more than a protest against the too rapidly lowering American ideals. It is full of action, of actual human characters. It grips the reader tremendously. It has dramatic qualities which are altogether superior to the swashbuckling episodes to which we have grown accustomed. It is the drama of a human soul the reader watches.

One can not help wondering how the American public will respond to the book's obvious moral. The regenerated Francis Jackson Hart is not promised great wealth or great fame. He is made to appreciate the worth of the common lot and to be content with doing his work honestly and without thought of other reward than that which honest labor may bring. But most of us will lament Mr. Herrick's Puritan severity that does not permit even a hint of coming luxury.

It is the finest study of human motive that has appeared for many a day.

The Ladder of Swords. By Gilbert Parker. New York: Harper & Brothers. Pp. 291. $1.50.

Sir Gilbert can write an historical novel that is something more than a succession of sanguinary encounters. Add to this the merit of novelty, genuine literary charm, a character you would really like to know more about, and a love story that is worthy of the Elizabethan age in which it is placed, and you have a book worth reading. To one who remembers "The Right of Way," with

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its relentless study of human motive, "The Ladder of Swords" is almost an idyl. The love of a Huguenot man and Huguenot girl entangles them into the international policy of Queen Elizabeth, but only for a moment. The gallantry of the man and the faithfulness of the girl appeal to the Queen and the two vanish into the enjoyment of a few years' peace. It is the moment when they are brought to court with which the story deals, and, for delicacy of treatment and — barring the fool — for genuine Elizabethan atmosphere, the volume stands among the best of recent stories of historical sort. It may be a bit of literary bric-a-brac, but is not a sketch by Raphael worth a warehouse crammed with chromos?

Other Fiction

Alfred Henry Lewis, in "The Boss," showed that he could use his acquaintance with politics with good dramatic effect. In "The President" (A. S. Barnes & Co., $1.50), he has moved from municipal into national politics. Just why it should be called "The President" is a little hard to see, for it deals with a man who never got even a nomination for the chief magistracy. The chief virtues of the book are two. It shows in a striking way how a great railroad can be utilized in national politics, and it has an interesting love story which moves on rapidly and with sufficient mystery to make it effective. Many of its elements are highly improbable. What would happen, for instance, if a man whose income is a million or two a month were to assume incognito? And it is also highly improbable that one could tunnel under the vault containing the gold in the United States Treasury and find the gold slipping down ready for transportation upon little rubber rafts. But when these allowances have been made, it must certainly be said that the book is interesting. It has also the breeziness of Mr. Lewis' other work, as well as its realism. It may not be literature, but it is capital reading.

If Lilian Bell had a little stronger sense of the eternal fitness of things, she would be a writer to be seriously considered. Her work of late has not borne out the promise of ten years ago and has occasionally come altogether too close to vulgarity. In her recent book, "At Home with the Jardines" (L. C. Page & Company, $1.50), she has to some extent recovered tone. The book is smart and, in places, humorous. It is not a story; it is a collection of sketches intended to serve as guide, counselor and friend to young married couples. Its egotism is rather obtrusive, but its wit seems more spontaneous than in some of the author's recent work. To be frank, however, we wish Miss Bell would write a book in which the first personal pronoun was less in evidence.

When one stops to consider, it is a little surprising that in the recent popularity of financial novels crises of the past should not have more generally appealed to writers of fiction. In "Black Friday" (Bobbs-Merrill Company, $1.50), Mr. Frederick S. Isham has pre-empted the opportunity to exploit the most remarkable day in the financial history of America. Yet the volume after all does not center about that *dies irae* whose name it bears, but rather about an ordinary love story between a high-strung girl and an immensely wealthy captain of industry. The story rises to no great heights and, fortunately, sinks to no great depths. It is readable and its first half is convincing. Its second half, with its unaccountable shifting of scene to Paris under the commune, is a far cry from probability.

Brand Whitlock, already credited with a couple of clever novels, has achieved something worth while in "The Happy Average." (Bobbs-Merrill Company, $1.50.) It is the story, not of high adventure or of deep problems, but of the average sort of life. Its hero is not a genius; he does not achieve any great success, nor does the author suggest that such success awaits him. He is the type of thousands of men who never get into novels except in caricature. For how can the average man be "literesque"? It takes courage to portray him. That Mr. Whitlock has done it, and done it faithfully, every reader of his story will allow. Thousands of us can see our own past or future in the unadventurous love of "Marley" for "Lavinia" and in the moderate success which awaits an industrious young man who easily changes his occupation in order to make a living. The book is wholesome, convincing, and full of promise of a literary maturity which will win success, not by a portrayal of extravagant passion and impossible episodes, but by the honest portrayal of the spirit of plain men and women. And there is plenty of room for a disciple of Howells.

Some Clever Games

Mr. McCutcheon's Bird Center cartoons have won other than theatrical honors. They have been made into a game which has in it the possibilities of actual fun (Chicago: Home Game Company, fifty cents). In much the same way the dangers besetting strangers in a great city are elaborately revealed in an unconventional game called "Bunco" (Chicago: Home Game Company, fifty cents). All of us discovered in our youth that we could learn a good many things from "Authors." While these games are hardly as literary, they can certainly boast of being sociological!

Two new card games just published by Parker Brothers, Salem, Massachusetts (fifty cents each) are "The Game of Sherlock Holmes" and "Squire, or Sir Peter Peppercorn." Both are so devised as to keep an evening company in a rollicking good humor, as they are fast games with plenty of fun in them and easy to play. Two more elaborate novelties are "Election" (Election Card Company, fifty cents) and "Somerset" (Somerset Card Company, twenty-five cents). "Election" is a game of the campaign, with a card for every state, bearing an electoral vote upon which the players must figure, and certain "trust" cards which play an important part. The aim is to secure a majority for one's candidate. "Somerset" is a number game in which cards are matched according to rules which may be so applied as to make it an intricate and absorbing pastime.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Ames.—September 15.—Judge A. M. Harrison, of the district court at Minneapolis, rendered a decision allowing the ten indictments against ex-Mayor A. A. Ames of Minneapolis, for bribery and corruption, to stand.

Arts and Science.—September 19.—The International Congress of Arts and Science opened at St. Louis.

Casualties.—September 24.—Sixty-two persons killed by wreck on the Southern Railway near Knoxville, Tennessee.

—September 21.—An electric car in Melrose, Massachusetts, was blown to pieces by striking a box of dynamite which had fallen from an express wagon. Ten persons were killed and several others injured.

—September 23.—Nine little girls smothered to death in an out-house vault of Pleasant Ridge school near Cincinnati, when floor gave way.

—September 23.—Fast freight train on Baltimore & Ohio Railroad struck a wagon loaded with dynamite at North Branch, West Virginia, near Cumberland; two persons were killed and nine injured.

—October 2.—Half the town of Watrous, New Mexico, has been destroyed by a flood caused by the breaking of the dams of the Aqua Pura Company. Twelve persons were drowned.

Deaths. — September 18. — Daniel Willard Fiske, formerly of Cornell University, died at Frankfort-on-Main.

—September 20.—William L. Learned, ex-Justice of the New York Supreme Court, died, aged eighty-three.

—September 22.—Samuel Ives Curtiss, Semitic scholar and professor of Hebrew in Chicago Theological Seminary, died suddenly in London, aged sixty.

—September 23.—General Harrison Allen, deputy auditor for the Postoffice Department, died at Washington, D. C., aged sixty-nine.

—September 25.—Rear-Admiral Fernando P. Gilmore died in New York, aged fifty-seven.... Louis Fleischmann, millionaire baker and philanthropist, died of paralysis....Frederick W. Rhinelander, president of the Metropolitan Museum of Art and manager of the Institution for the Blind, New York City, died at Stockbridge, Massachusetts.

—September 30.—George Frisbie Hoar, United States Senator from Massachusetts, died, aged seventy-eight.

—October 1.—Major Henry E. Alvord, of the United States Department of Agriculture, dropped dead at the World's Fair.

—October 4.—Henry C. Payne, Postmaster-General of the United States, died, aged sixty.

Education.—September 21.—Illinois College at Jacksonville celebrated its seventy-fifth anniversary.

—September 20.—Lyman C. Smith, of Syracuse, New York, gives new building to cost over $100,000 for the Lyman Cornelius Smith College of Applied Science of Syracuse University, established by him four years ago with an endowment of $750,000.

Graft.—September 29.—Seven aldermen indicted at Buffalo on charges of receiving bribes.

Labor.—September 17.—The general strike of employes of the American Tube Works, Somerville, Massachusetts, begun four months ago in support of a demand for $1 a week additional wage, was declared off by the union. The company refused to make concessions.

—September 21.—The Marble Cutters' Union withdrew from the New York building trades alliance.

—September 22.—The nine months' strike of the machinists and boilermakers of the Chicago, Lake Shore & Eastern Railroad, against a ten per cent reduction in wages, ended by a stampede of fully half the number of strikers to accept the company's offer of work at the reduced wage. The railroad is owned by the Illinois Steel Company.

—September 22.—The strike of the skilled labor of the American Car and Foundry Works, of Terre Haute, Indiana, has been declared off after existing for several months.

—October 4.—The Chicago Woodworkers' Union has abandoned the strike begun last June.

—October 5.—Nearly fourteen hundred rubber workers in Chicago gave up a five weeks' strike and went back to work....The American Labor Union, the eastern rival of the American Federation of Labor, is organizing a new stockyards union.

Lynching.—September 13.—The Georgia military tribunal of inquiry, in its report, charged militia officers with cowardice and incompetence at the Statesboro lynching riot. It was decided to courtmartial five of the officers.

—September 15.—The grand jury at Huntsville, Alabama, after investigating the lynching of Horace Mapes, a negro, indicted Mayor T. W. Smith, of Huntsville; Sheriff A. D. Rodgers, and ten members of the mob.

—September 16.—Deputy Sheriff Thrift and Ellis Dowling were killed in a feud outbreak at Baxter, Florida, and seven other white men were shot down.

—September 18.—John Ware, who shot a white man, was taken from the sheriff and lynched near Royston, Franklin County, Georgia. ....John Allison, a white man, was lynched at Alexandria, Louisiana.

—September 21.—Two negroes at Talbotton, Georgia, tried and acquitted of conspiracy to murder whites, and of being members of the negro organization known as the "Before Day Club," were fatally shot by white men after they left court.

—September 26.—The military court investigating the conduct of Company F, Alabama National Guard, of Huntsville, in not protecting the negro, Horace Mapes, from a mob, reported to the governor that the company was inefficient and that it should be cashiered. October 14 was

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the date fixed for the mustering out of the command.

—September 28.—Georgia militia officers were served with charges for neglect of duty in permitting a mob to lynch a negro. The court-martial will be held October 10.

Missions.—September 28.—Yale University has received $40,000 from the British government for the Yale foreign mission in China. The money was paid by China as indemnity for the murder of two English missionaries, but was refused by several English missionary societies.

Navy.—September 29.—The new battleship Connecticut was launched.

Peace Conference.—September 13.—The Interparliamentary Peace Conference, in session at St. Louis, adopted a resolution calling on the powers to intervene in the Russo-Japanese War and requesting President Roosevelt to summon the Hague Tribunal.

—September 24.—President Roosevelt has assented to the request of the Interparliamentary Peace Conference that at an early date he will ask other nations to join in a second peace congress at The Hague.

Peace Congress.—October 3.—The International Peace Congress opened in Boston.

Politics.—September 12.—President Theodore Roosevelt's letter of acceptance was published. ....William T. Cobb, Republican, was elected governor of Maine by a majority of thirty thousand votes.

—September 13.—The Rhode Island Legislature, in special session, refused to adopt amendments to the state constitution, and censured Governor Garvin for calling it together.

—September 14.—The Colorado Republican state convention renominated Governor Peabody and adopted a platform indorsing his attitude in the mine strike and favoring an eight-hour law.

—September 21.—The letter of Senator Charles W. Fairbanks, accepting the Republican nomination to the Vice-Presidency, was made public.

—September 25.—Judge Parker's letter of acceptance of the Democratic nomination was published.

—October 2.—The letter of Henry G. Davis, accepting the Democratic nomination to the Vice-Presidency, was made public.

—October 5.—The Supreme Court decision gave the LaFollette ticket the right to be placed on the official ballot of the State of Wisconsin in the Republican column.

Religion.—September 27.—The third general eucharistic congress of Roman Catholics met in New York attended by over one thousand priests and numerous high officials.

—September 29.—The annual convention of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew (Episcopal) met in Philadelphia, with attendance of two thousand members.

—October 5.—The triennial convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church opened in Boston.

Russian Cruiser.—September 11.—The converted Russian cruiser Lena, from Vladivostok, entered San Francisco harbor. Its commander, Captain Belinski, alleged that it was necessary to repair its boilers.

—September 13.—President Roosevelt ordered the Russian auxiliary cruiser Lena at San Francisco either to depart at once from American waters or disarm and remain at Mare's Island navy yard until the end of the war.

—September 19.—The dismantling of the Russian transport Lena was completed at the Mare Island navy yard. The crew will have the freedom of San Francisco, but will not be permitted to leave that city until the war ends.

Science.—September 14.—Commander Robert E. Peary announced to the International Geographical Congress that he would make another attempt within a year to find the north pole in a ship of his own designing.

—October 3.—The International Congress on Tuberculosis opened in St. Louis.

Timber.—September 22.—Forest fires in Oregon have destroyed timber valued at $8,000,000.

Trusts.—September 26.—Charles M. Schwab has bid in the Union Iron Works at receiver's sale for $1,700,000 for the new shipbuilding trust. Mr. Schwab has now almost entire control of the shipbuilding industry of this country.

Philippines

Friars' Land.—September 20.—The first payment of $2,000,000 on account of the purchase of the friars' land was authorized by the War Department at Washington.

San Domingo

Revolution.—September 26.—General Candelaria de Las Rosas, with fifty men, revolted against the government in favor of Isadore Jiminez, and started for the interior.

Paraguay

Revolution.—September 15.—The insurgent warship Sajonia and the insurgent General Ferreira, with a land force of cavalry and infantry, made a simultaneous attack on the port of San Antonio. A government land force was routed.

Uruguay

Revolution.—September 13.—The death of General Aparicio Saravia, the chief of the Uruguayan insurgents, was officially reported.

—September 25.—Peace has been concluded between the Uruguayan government and the revolutionists under General Munoz.

Peru

President. — September 15. — The Peruvian Congress, by a vote of 101 against 50, proclaimed Jose Pardo, president, and Salvador Cavero, first vice-president of the republic.

The British Empire

Antarctic.—September 10.—The Discovery, the principal ship of the National Antarctic Expedition, arrived in Portsmouth after a successful trip of three years.

Casualties.—October 3.—Four persons were killed and about fifty injured by the derailing of a train near Llanelly, Wales.

Deaths. — September 14. — The Right Rev. Wareing Bardsley, Bishop of Carlisle, died at Rose Castle, Carlisle, in his seventieth year.

—September 25.—Colin Hunter, artist, is dead. He was born in 1841.

—October 1.—Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, Liberal leader in the House of Commons, died of heart failure.

Eisteddfod.—September 6.—The Welsh National Eisteddfod was opened at Rhyl.

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Irish Reform.—September 25.—Report of committee on organization of the Irish Reform Association was adopted. Lord Dunraven was chairman. An Irish financial council of twenty-four, under the presidency of the lord lieutenant, and with the chief secretary for Ireland as vice-president, is recommended. The functions of the council will be to administer the $30,000,000 expended annually in Irish services.

Canada

Commerce.— September 20.— The Canadian Manufacturers' Association, representing over fifteen hundred leading merchants of the Dominion, assembled in convention at Montreal.

Governor-General.—September 9.—Lord Grey has been appointed Governor-General in succession to Lord Minto, whose term of office is about to expire.

Parliament.—September 29.—The Canadian Parliament was dissolved. A new one will be elected November 3.

Newfoundland

Governor.—September 27.—Sir William McGregor, the new governor, has entered upon his official duties.

Sweden and Norway

Casualties.—October 3.—The Norwegian bark, Sir John Lawrence, from London, struck on a rock at Fredrickstad and dashed to pieces. The crew, numbering fourteen persons, were drowned.

Science.—September 18.—The relief expedition sent to search for the Arctic exploration steamer America, returns to Tromso, on the steamer Frithjof, having been prevented from reaching Franz Josef Land by insurmountable ice conditions.

Denmark

Death.—September 26.—Dr. Niels R. Finsen, discoverer of the Finsen light cure, died at Copenhagen.

France

Deaths.—October 4.—Frederic Auguste Bartholdi, designer of the statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," died in Paris, aged seventy.

Switzerland

Labor Riots.—September 19.—At Lugano a sympathetic riot developed as a protest against the labor policy of the Italian ministry.

Italy

Free Thinkers.—September 20.—The congress of Free Thinkers assembled in Rome; five thousand delegates present, of whom ten came from America.

Vesuvius.—September 23.—Mount Vesuvius is in greater active eruption than it has been for ten years.

Riots.—September 19.—One person killed and several badly injured in conflicts with soldiers at Genoa, the strikers endeavoring to prevent the departure of trains. Ten thousand workingmen assembled in Rome to protest against the intervention of troops....The strike here has now been abandoned by the workingmen. It has extended to Palermo and Leghorn, Turin and Bologna. Mob rule prevails in Milan, newspapers are not allowed to publish and all places of amusement are closed.

Royalty.—September 15.—Queen Helena, of Italy, gave birth to a son and heir to the Italian throne. The babe was named Humbert and given the title of the Prince of Piedmont.

—September 16.—The King of Italy gave $200,000 to a workmen's old age fund, granted amnesty to deserters and shortened the terms of imprisonment of many convicts, in celebration of the birth of an heir to the throne.

Spain

Anarchy.—September 14.—Five anarchists arrested in Barcelona where a dynamite bomb was exploded the night before. A plot to assassinate a high political official was unearthed in Madrid.

Bull Fights.—October 5.—The Institute of Social Reforms at Madrid decided, by thirteen votes to eight, to ratify the absolute prohibition of Sunday bull fights.

Portuguese East Africa

Revolt.—A Portuguese force of 499 officers and men was ambuscaded by natives of the Cuanhama tribe and 254 were killed and 50 wounded. The dead included 15 Portuguese officers. The troops were crossing the Cunene River, the boundary between German and Portuguese Southwest Africa.

Servia

Coronation.—September 19.—All the powers except Russia have instructed their ministers to attend the coronation of King Peter.

—September 21.—Peter Karageorgevitch was crowned King of Servia in Belgrade. There was no hostile demonstration. The Russian minister was present. The centenary of the Servian revolution under Karageorge, grandfather of King Peter, was celebrated in the afternoon.

German Empire

Deaths.—September 18.—Prince Herbert Bismarck, son of the "Iron Chancellor," died of cancer, aged fifty-five years.

Science.—September 13.—Professor Stentzel, of Berlin, announces that since August 22 he has observed on the southern hemisphere of the sun some exceptionally large sun spots, one being nearly forty thousand miles long.

German Southwest Africa

Hereros.—September 12.—The main body of Hereros, numbering several thousand, broke through the surrounding ring of German troops and escaped southeast with the loss of fifty men killed.

—*October* 5.—It was officially announced that Germany will put a force of eight thousand European troops in the field against the Hereros.

Austria-Hungary

Mormons.—September 22.—Count Tisza, the Hungarian Minister of the Interior, has prohibited Mormon propaganda within Hungary upon the ground that it is undesirable.

Turkish Empire

Insurrection.—September 19.—Three hundred Arab soldiers pillaged the port of Salonica and the bazar. Sherik Pasha is surrounded at Prisrend, and Suleiman Pasha, with sixteen battalions, is proceeding to his relief.

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The Russian Empire

Jews.—September 24.—Prince Sviatopolk-Mirski, the new Russian Minister of the Interior, has made public addresses to the Jews, promising them full justice and special aid to the poorer classes.

Railroad.—September 23.—Prince Khilkoff formally opened the railroad around Lake Baikal, upon which two thousand workmen have been employed to hurry completion for transportation of troops and supplies.

Tibet.—September 20.—Russia officially protested against the British treaty with Tibet, claiming that Great Britain had broken faith in thus virtually proclaiming a protectorate over Tibet.

Chinese Empire

Boxers.—September 27.—Reports from the northwestern part of the province of Shantung say that the Shotuan Boxers are openly distributing handbills similar to those issued before the outbreak in 1900. These fix October 17 next as the date for extermination of all foreigners.

Consul.—September 14.—Robert M. McWade, consul at Canton, was removed by President Roosevelt.

Japan

Conscription.—September 29.—The emergency ordinance amending the army conscription law was gazetted. The service of the second reservists is extended from five to ten years. Reservists will be retired at the age of thirty-seven.

Deaths.—September 26.—Lafcadio Hearn, the author, died at Tokyo, aged fifty-four.

War.—September 11.—The Russian Baltic fleet, under Vice-Admiral Rojestvenski, sailed from Kronstadt for Libau and the Orient. After a few hours' sail orders were received to put into Reval.

—September 13.—It was reported that Admiral Alexieff had surrendered the command of the forces at Vladivostok, Harbin and Tieling to General Kuropatkin.

—September 14.—The British steamship Calchas, captured by the Vladivostok squadron, was released, and all of her cargo that was not consigned to Japanese ports....The Japanese proclaimed a protectorate of Kamchatka.

—September 18.—A Russian sortie from Port Arthur attacking the Etseshan fort, recently captured by the Japanese, was repulsed with heavy loss....A large force of Cossacks was ambushed and almost wiped out northeast of Yentai, on the heights east of Yumentseshan.

—September 19.—Russia's reply to the United States on the question of contraband of war was delivered to the United States ambassador. It recognizes the immunity of innocent trade with Japanese ports, but holds to the right to stop contraband destined for the use of Japanese military or naval forces.

—September 20.—General Haraguchi, commanding the Japanese forces in Korea, has been recalled to Tokyo....Liaoyang is being fortified by the Japanese....Japanese captured two important forts on either side of Sueiszeying, north of Port Arthur.

—September 22.—High Hill, an important position, was captured by the Japanese after four days' fighting, but on a call from General Stoessel for volunteers, the Russians regained it.

—September 23.—Official reports stated that Marquis Oyama's advance guard was within thirty miles of Mukden....Two Russian destroyers returned to Vladivostok, having captured a Japanese transport and a sailing ship....The cruisers Rossia and Gromoboi, three torpedo boats and three destroyers have sailed for Gensan for another raid on the eastern coast of Korea.

—September 24.—The British steamer Crusader, bound from Portland, Oregon, for Vladivostok, attempted to pass through Tsugaru strait and was captured by a Japanese torpedo boat and taken to Hakodate....A furious general assault was made on Port Arthur by the Japanese, on three sides simultaneously. The whole of Admiral Togo's and Vice-Admiral Kamimura's squadrons were aiding in the assault.

—September 25.—The Japanese have captured Fort Kuropatkin, constructed for the protection of the garrison's water supply. The assault has so far resulted in the capture of three important Russian positions and six small forts lying between Shushiyen and Rihlung Mountain....An imperial ukase announced that the Czar had created a second army by a division of the active forces in Manchuria and the immediate mobilization of additional troops. General Grippenberg, commander of the Third Army Corps in the province of Vilna, was given command of this second army and placed on an equal footing with General Kuropatkin.

—September 27.—The Japanese have reached Davan, on the west bank of the Liao River.... The Japanese have placed another army in the field, of nearly one hundred thousand men.... The Russian Black Sea fleet has sailed from Sevastopol.... Twenty-five hundred Japanese troops have arrived at Chemulpo and more are expected. The advance of the troops northward, along the eastern coast toward Vladivostok, has begun.

—September 28.—The Russian government has contracted for eleven torpedo-boat destroyers to be built in French shipyards.

—September 29.—The Japanese have captured Da Pass. By successful countermining at Port Arthur they have annihilated one thousand Russians. The main Russian army, under General Kuropatkin, has withdrawn to the north of Mukden. Three Japanese torpedo boats have been lost and one cruiser damaged by contact with Russian mines.

—October 1.—The Japanese have completed the railway to Liaoyang.

—October 3.—Desperate fighting reported at Port Arthur. The premises of the principal merchants, General Stoessel's residence, the Russian church and the police station have been wrecked. ....The three Japanese armies have all crossed the Taitze River.

—October 5.—The Japanese along the Hun River now number two hundred thousand men. Four thousand Chinese bandits, organized in regular troops, are aiding the Japanese armies. ....The Russians are constructing defenses at Fankiatum, Shishintz and Ilu, all to the southwest of Mukden.

—October 6.—The departure of Admiral Wiren's squadron from Port Arthur was reported.

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YOKOHAMA CELEBRATES A VICTORY

The picturesque decorations of Japanese streets as shown by recent photographs (see page 1519)

Note the liberal use of the American flag

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The World To-Day

VOLUME VII. DECEMBER, 1904. NUMBER 6

Literature and the Beast

THIS is the season of books, and, to speak candidly, of rather mediocre books. Yet the output is not without its characteristics. Any attentive student of literature must have noticed one fact of importance: our literature is growing animal.

* * * * *

It is not merely that the note of genuine romance is dying away, to be replaced by the beatification of blood-letting. The modern historical romance, coming as it does so largely from the hands of young women, may very well be trusted to return some day from Aceldama. And even blood-letting is not always elemental savagery. The discouraging trait in modern literature is not descended from romance, but from anthropology. The mystery of life and love has been dispelled by the vigorous young men who are setting the pace in novel writing. Their men and women do not fall in love any more. They mate. The elemental passions which these amateur sociologists imagine belonged to the cave man are found and described among the men and women of to-day's world. In comparison with this latest valuation of personality, Rousseau's "natural man" was a gentleman and a scholar.

* * * * *

This conquest of literature by animalism is interesting from another angle. Most of its agents are socialists, and their work may fairly be interpreted as a prophecy of what we may expect in art when their Utopia is realized. Idealism may be "bourgeois," but it certainly is not brutal. If "paganism" means what this new literary output emphasizes, we choose to become "Philistines."

To drop this jargon: We will not believe that we are only clever animals capable of producing limitless wealth. A man is a creature of dreams and visions, as well as of economic vigor and animal passions. Let us hope literary persons, even though socialists, will remember this fact. For if matters are carried much further, fiction will become a branch of physiological psychology — only less reserved.

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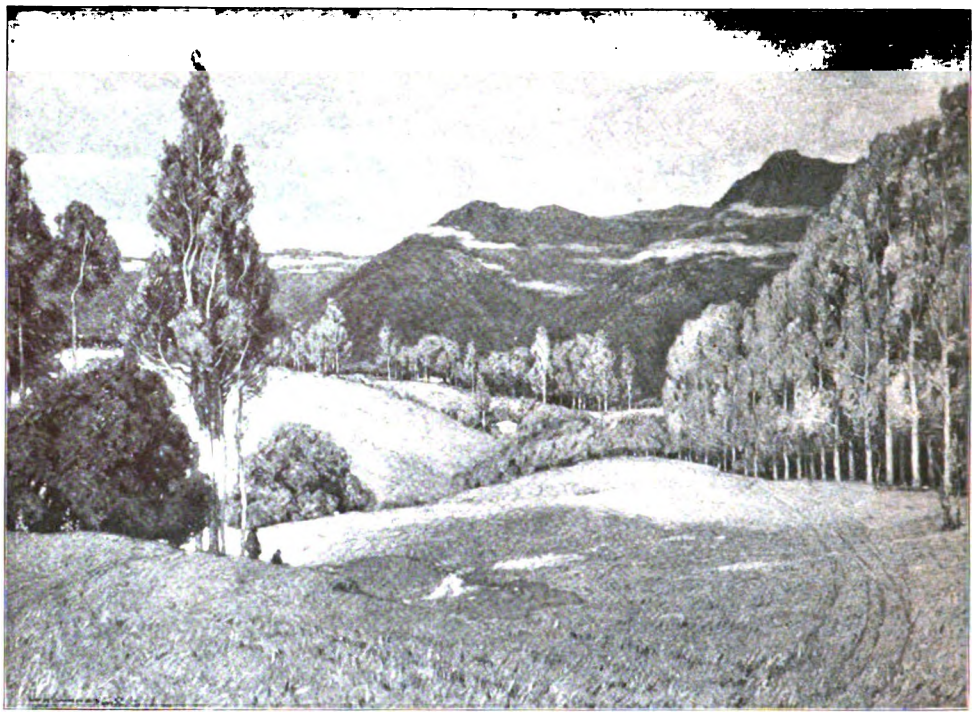
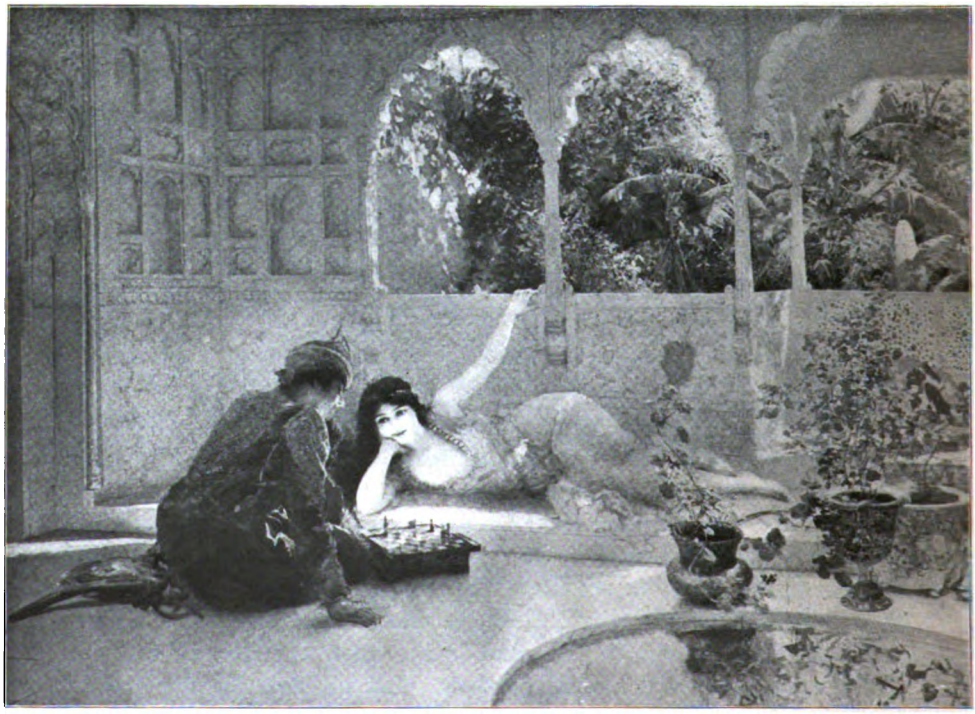


"MONTECITO," BY WILLIAM WENDT



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ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF WORKS BY AMERICAN ARTISTS, ART INSTITUTE OF CHICAGO

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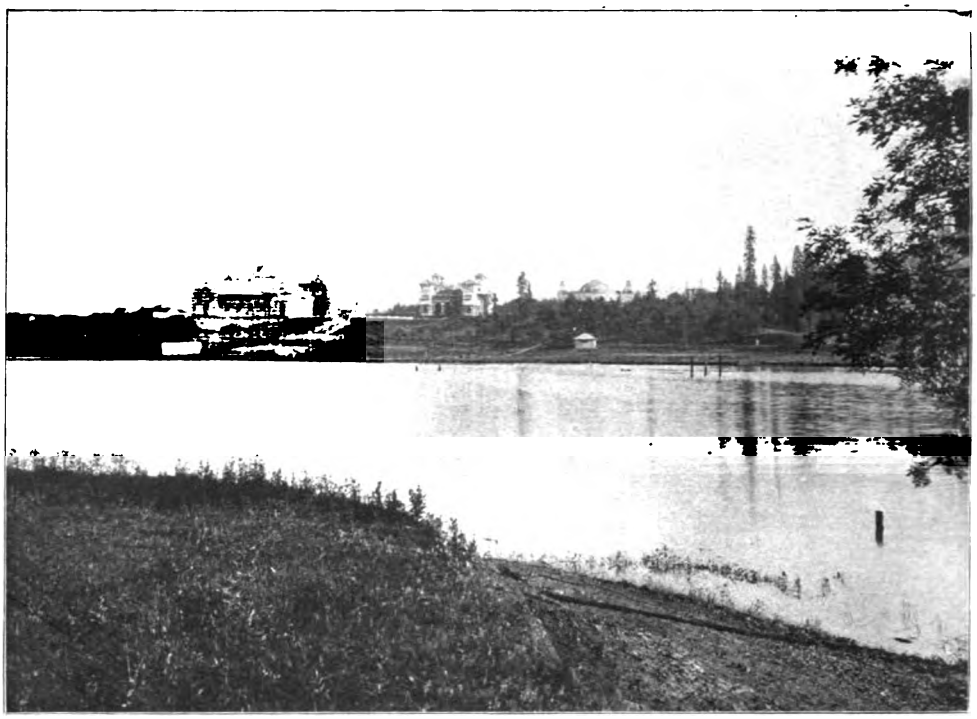

THE EXPOSITION GROUNDS FROM THE GOVERNMENT PENINSULA

THE FOREIGN EXHIBITS PALACE

BUILDINGS FOR THE LEWIS AND CLARK CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION, PORTLAND, 1905

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COUNTESS GREY

The wife of the new Governor-General of Canada

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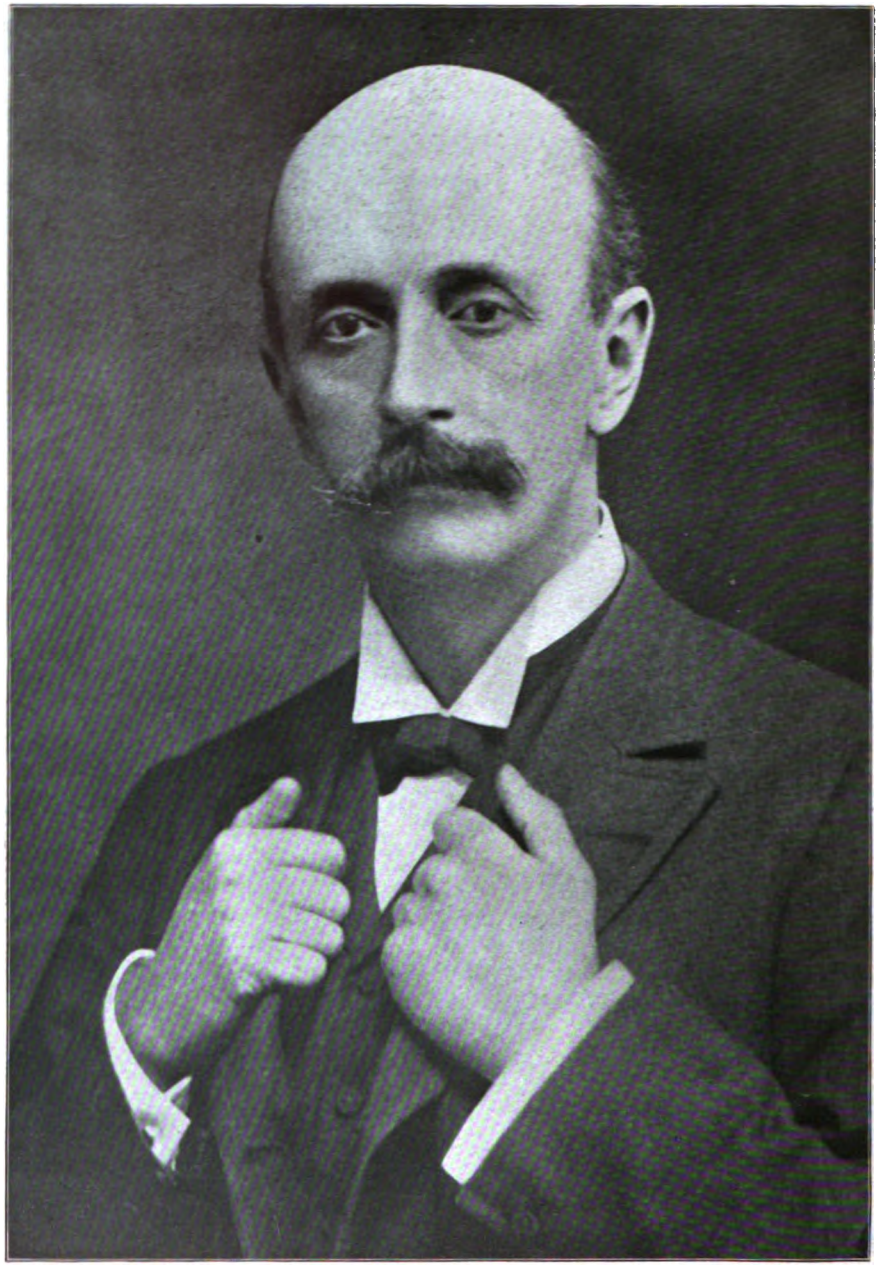

EARL GREY

Governor-General of Canada, who has just arrived at his new post. The Earl is a man of wide experience in administration, both in South Africa and at home. He is also interested in many large industrial enterprises

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EVENTS OF THE MONTH

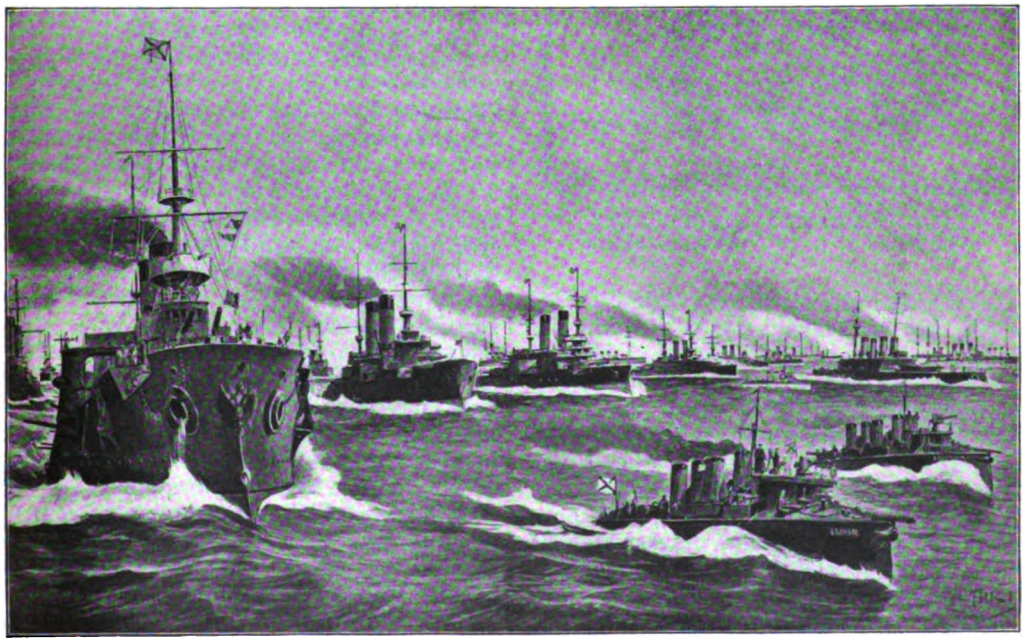
World Politics

The Russian Fleet and British Trawlers

During the past month Europe has faced the possibilities of a general European war. Great Britain is always hostile to Russia, and since Russian cruisers a few months ago undertook to search all ships for contraband goods, the British state of mind has been marked by great excitement. It was at this psychological moment that the Baltic squadron sailed south, professedly toward Japanese waters. On October 22, about 12:30 A.M., the fleet came upon a number of English trawlers in the North Sea, and without provocation fired upon the Crane, killing its captain and third mate, wounding about twenty of its crew and sinking the vessel itself. The news of such a wanton outrage stirred Great Britain almost beyond the limits of control. King Edward attempted to allay the excitement by attending a horse race, but both he and all the world knew that for a few hours war between Great Britain and Russia was within the range of possibilities. The Balfour government immediately demanded an apology for the act, financial reimbursement for the injury, and the punishment of the officers involved. Orders were issued by the Admiralty for the various British fleets to hold themselves in readiness for any emergency, and a strong Mediterranean fleet took its station at Gibraltar.

The Russian Apology and Excuse

Public suspense was to some extent relieved when the Czar sent a note to King Edward, expressing profound regret and promising full reparation to the families of the victims. When the Russian fleet reached Vigo, it was ordered to



THE BALTIC FLEET WHICH ATTACKED BRITISH VESSELS IN THE NORTH SEA
From *L'Illustration*

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NERVOUS? WELL, SAY!

MISTAKEN IDENTITY

Washington *Post*

Always Room for One More.

THE TRAWLER INCIDENT IN CARICATURE
Boston *Herald* Pittsburg *Dispatch*

await further direction, and Admiral Rojestvensky was called upon tc explain the tragedy. His explanation was to the effect that he had feared an attack by a Japanese torpedo boat, upon which he had fired; that he was very sorry he had injured any fishermen, but he had not been aware of such an occurrence. As this raised the question of fact, both governments simultaneously requested that the matter be referred to investigation. It was agreed that a high commission should be appointed, to be composed of five naval officers. Thereupon, on November 1, the Russian squadron went on its route, four of its officers having been detached to act as witnesses before the commission. That Admiral Rojestvensky has not altogether fallen from the imperial favor is to be seen from the fact that subsequent to this unfortunate event he has been appointed aide-de-camp to the Emperor.

The Probable Explanation of the Act

Until the commission meets it is impossible to come to any fair decision as to the facts in the case. It is difficult to believe that Russian officers would deliberately lie about the presence of warships, especially as they further assert a war vessel remained on the fishing banks for half an hour after the Russian fleet had left. On the other hand it seems incredible that Japanese war-ships should have appeared in the North Sea without having been sighted somewhere on the voyage thither. The probability is that the true explanation will always be a matter of conjecture. We venture this: that some irresponsible officer either mistook the English steam trawlers, with their rockets and signal lights, for torpedo boats or fired at the boat in pursuance of a determination which was announced before the sailing of the fleet that all sailing vessels of every sort were to be kept at a distance. When all has been said, however, the act shows again how highhanded are Russian methods and how thoroughly the navy at least is possessed of delirium-Japanese.

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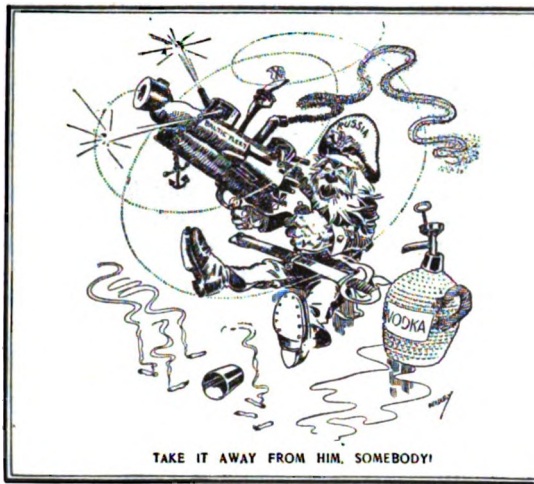
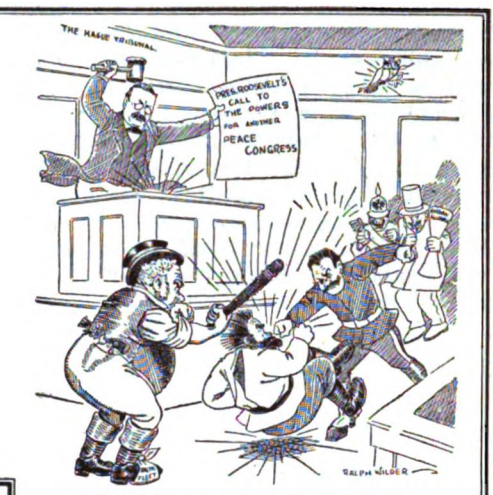


TAKE IT AWAY FROM HIM, SOMEBODY!

Chicago *Daily News*



ISN'T IT ABOUT TIME TO LISTEN TO THE CHAIRMAN?

THE TRAWLER INCIDENT IN CARICATURE

Chicago *Record-Herald* Minneapolis *Tribune*

Russo-Japanese War. The Battle of the Shakhe

Another great battle, officially known as that of the Shakhe, has been fought by the Japanese and Russians, but, like its predecessor at Liaoyang, the results were not as decisive as had been expected. On October 2, General Kuropatkin announced that the entire Russian army would at once make an advance movement toward Liaoyang and proceed to the relief of Port Arthur. The Japanese at that time occupied a position extending for about fifty miles, from Bentsiaputze on the east, through Yentai and across the railway to the banks of the Hun River on the west. The courage of the Russians rose as the Japanese fell back before their advancing hosts, and the capture of Bentsiaputze, an important center of communication, was effected. But the tide turned on October 11, when severe fighting occurred at Yentai and the Japanese gained a decided victory, the Russians being compelled to retreat. The Japanese army, under General Nodzu, occupied the center position and pushed forward so energetically that the Russian army was split into two parts. General Oku's army crossed the Hun River and, advancing to the eastward, attacked the Russian right on its flank, while General Kuroki checked the left wing of the enemy. Although compelled to retreat, the Russians did not yield an inch without a struggle. General Smolenski was killed and General Rialinski mortally wounded. From the afternoon of October 10 until October 18, the conflict raged with but little intermission.

Forces and Losses

The Russian forces engaged were estimated at two hundred thousand infantry, twenty-six thousand cavalry and nine hundred and fifty guns. The Japanese had nearly as many infantry, but were weaker in cavalry and field pieces. The losses of the Russians especially were very heavy, one regiment being almost annihilated, and some companies having but ten or fifteen men left. As reported by General Kuropatkin, there were twelve

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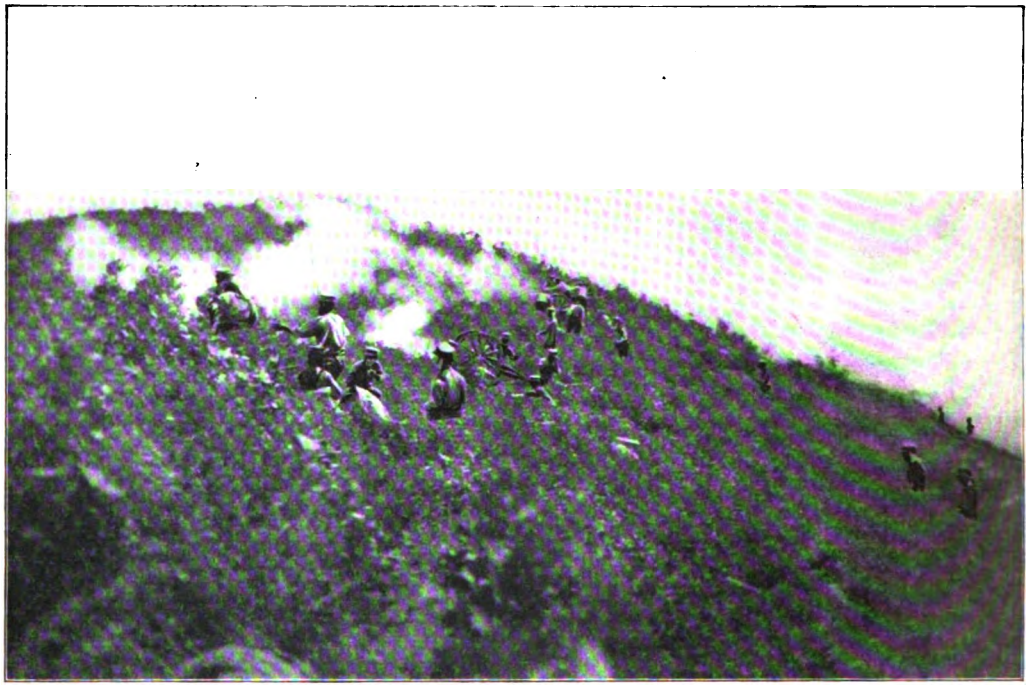
thousand dead and 55,868 wounded. Marquis Oyama reported a total of 15,879 dead and wounded. In proportion to the numbers engaged in the battle, the ratio of casualties, however, was much smaller than at Gettysburg or Sedan. The net result of this fearful slaughter was the repulse of the Russian attack, and an advance of the Japanese to a position about fifteen miles further north. The latter were unable to follow up their victory with any decisive action, prevented largely by the torrential rains and thunderstorms which flooded the country and made pursuit well-nigh impossible. The superior range of the Russian artillery was also a bar to further action. General Kuropatkin again made a masterly retreat, and the capture of a set of Russian maps indicates that his advance movement was not made without due precautions for a protected return if necessary. Kuropatkin does not, like Caesar, believe in burning his bridges behind him.



JAPANESE ARTILLERY IN ACTION
Photographed by John F. Bass for the Chicago *Daily News*

Internal Affairs in Russia and Japan

Fortunately for Japan, in face of the great drain on her men and her finances, her commercial prosperity is increasing. During the first eight months of 1904 her foreign trade was $9,500,000 in excess of the corresponding period last year. The excess of imports was $22,000,000. The large amount of money handled by the Japanese banks is also evidence of her increasing business. The total amount of deposits in the Japanese banks have increased from $146,647,140 in 1894 to $1,494,447,454.50 in 1903. The clearing-houses in Tokyo, Osaka, Kyoto, Yokohama, Kobe and Nagasaki in 1904 cleared bills to the amount of $1,793,805,625. The rice crop this year is twenty-five per cent larger than usual, an increased area being under cultivation. Another indication of the financial soundness of Japan is that despite the fact that loans of all descriptions since the outbreak of the war amount to $180,090,000, the currency has not been expanded nor prices raised on any commodities except rice and barley, which have been bought largely by the government. To the cautious policy of

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the latter and the carefulness of the people in guarding every cent is attributed this fortunate condition. In contrast with the loyalty of the Japanese to the cause to which they have devoted themselves is the increasing dissatisfaction in Russia. The reservists in large numbers are in hiding, or sullenly refusing to serve. Commerce has been paralyzed by the economic action of the government in reducing expenditure on public works, thereby throwing tens of thousands out of employment. At the same time the railways were monopolized for war purposes, thus paralyzing private enterprise. In western Russia many firms have been rendered bankrupt. In Russia proper there is also great destitution.

Lafcadio Hearn

The funeral services of Lafcadio Hearn were in harmony with the later years of his life, which had been passed in the closest seclusion. For some time his address had been known to but a few friends, outside of whom he did not associate with any one. In accordance with his well-known wishes, but a very few were gathered at his late home on the occasion of the services, which were in accord with the Buddhist religion. The casket was of plain white wood, with a few plain wreaths and flower stands after the Japanese style. Dr. Ume Kenjiro, of the Imperial University, took charge of the services. Three or four other professors of the Imperial University and a few professors from the Wasada University, in which Mr. Hearn was a professor at the time of his death, together with two or three of his old and loved students, were the only ones present besides his wife and four children. Many others would have been glad to be present, but only those who were his close personal friends were welcomed. The world was shut out in his death as it had been in his life.

Affairs in France

Premier Combes' ecclesiastical policy has brought his ministry close to dissolution. The declarations of the premier that the Concordat between France and the Vatican could not longer be maintained, and his criticism of the actions of Pope Pius X., in opposition to the civil authority of the French government, stirred up a debate which occupied two days. At its close, however, Premier Combes was sustained by a vote of 325 to 237. The administration of General Andre, the Minister of War, has been another source of danger to the Premier. General Andre has been accused of instituting secret inquiries into the careers of army officers, organizing secret spying among subordinates, and of penalizing officers on account of their religious opinions. On November 4 the attempt of the opposition to force him to resign resulted in a riot in the Chamber of Deputies, in which the Minister of War was personally assaulted and Premier Combes only narrowly escaped violent treatment. Fighting was general throughout the room. President Brisson suspended the session by withdrawing, and officials cleared the galleries. When the session was later resumed, the exclusion of M. Syveton, the Nationalist who had struck General Andre in the face, was voted by a large majority. On his refusal to leave the Chamber, he was forcibly removed by the guard. The proceedings finally ended in a vote of 343 to 236 declaring confidence in the government.

Elections in Italy

The general strike inaugurated in Italy by the Socialists, although it failed to accomplish any direct results, had the effect of so deeply disturbing the country that the government found it necessary to recommend a general election, which, by royal decree, was fixed for November 6 and 13. Premier Giolitti stated that the proposed policy upon which the government appeals to the people for support is one of the broadest liberalism consistent with peace and progress. It includes better secondary education, state ownership of railroads, reform in taxation, refunding of the state debt and the relief of the southern provinces. It does not propose the reduction of military expenses. The result of the election was a virtual vote of confidence in the government. The radicals suffered even in such strongholds as Milan and Genoa. One large element of the result was doubtless due to the fact that for the first time

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the clerical party voted as an ally of the government against the Socialists. Just what future political significance this may have is hard just now to say. It is to be noticed that Premier Giolitti's program in some of its particulars would seem radical in the United States. European government is in advance of the United States in point of control of various monopolies.

Canada Looks to England

Canada has also been having a political campaign, leading up to a general election on November 3. The Liberal government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, notwithstanding its preferential tariff in favor of the mother country and its other acts of filial devotion, was subjected during the canvass to determined attacks by the Conservatives, led by Mr. R. L. Borden, because it had not gone farther in the direction of reserving Canadian trade for Britons. Those ultraloyalists, in the words of Mr. Borden, "believe that any extension of our markets by means of reciprocal trade arrangements should be sought among those within the empire, who are our chief customers, rather than in foreign countries." Though the campaign, which resulted in Laurier's victory, was fought out on other issues also, it is certain that opposition to a trade reciprocity treaty with the United States has developed in Canada. The efforts of the government's enemies to fasten upon it some proof of extreme friendliness to American interests went to amusing lengths at times. That the doctrine of imperial unity, advocated by Joseph Chamberlain, has been received with wide favor by the people of Canada is indicated by the results of the Canadian election, since even the Liberals can not be properly accused of lukewarmness toward the imperial ideas of the great Englishman. It is not impossible, therefore, that American statesmen have already waited too long before making a serious attempt to cultivate closer trade relations with the people of Canada.

The Nation

The Elections

The national and state elections held November 8 resulted in a "landslide." Comment on the result will be found in an article by Charles H. Dennis, on page 1591. Aside from the Presidential contest, the chief interest lay in several animated gubernatorial contests, notably those in New York, Illinois, Wisconsin and Missouri.

Clash of Authority In Panama

When the Republic of Panama was founded upon the basis of a prospective canal concession, it must have been clear to the chief citizens of the isthmus that the fate of the diminutive nation depended upon the degree of fairness and self-restraint to be displayed toward it by the United States. Its situation was precarious. Panama took the chances, ceding the canal strip to the powerful republic that stood sponsor for it before the world and warded off the vengeance of Colombia. Governor Davis is now established there as the representative of the authority of the United States. But the government of Panama finds that embarrassments result from the presence of a foreign power upon the soil of the isthmus. For example, Governor Davis, through his representatives, sells postage stamps for two cents each. The stamps of Panama cost five cents each. Naturally Panama's postal revenues have fallen away, for the cheap stamps of the canal strip now carry to the United States a large part of the mail of the republic. This will serve in a small way to illustrate the awkward complications which have arisen. Furthermore, the people of Panama are apprehensive of greater difficulties in the future. Perhaps they will be shut off from the markets of the canal strip by a high protective tariff, since Americans are known to be partial to high tariffs. They earnestly wish to know what they are to expect in regard to all such matters.

Secretary Taft's Mission

In order that all differences with Panama may be satisfactorily arranged, President Roosevelt has sent Secretary Taft, of the War Department, under whose jurisdiction Panama canal affairs have been placed, to the isthmus, to fix the

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terms of American occupation under the existing treaty, and work out the details of American administration of the canal strip. One may assume that this fair and politic man will bring about a satisfactory settlement of all disputed points. The President has said in his letter of instruction to Secretary Taft that the honor and interests of the people of Panama must be respected. We can not afford to earn their dislike and distrust by ill-considered actions. Customs regulations for the canal strip, which would harmfully affect the people of Panama at their own doors, or unwarranted interference with their management of their own affairs, or any other injurious or arrogant procedure, would be a grave mistake. It is important that matters relating to American control of the canal strip should be thrashed out with President Amador and his associates by a high official of the American government, who will not stoop to pettinesss and who has sufficient discrimination as well as tact to eliminate all just causes of friction. Panama should benefit vastly from the construction of the canal. It is Secretary Taft's pleasant duty to see that it does so benefit.

Americans and Their Wards

Very likely it is a good thing that we should have conditions in the Philippines brought forward as a campaign issue occasionally, since the average citizen of the United States does not give much thought to them at other times. That is one of the chief difficulties about our formidable task of preparing alien peoples for self-government. They are far away. Individually, we have few or no interests in common with theirs. We set Congress to make laws for them in the presence of agents of American special interests and in the absence of all others who are actively concerned in the nature of the laws thus made. In these circumstances, the danger that the laws will be beneficial to certain Americans rather than to all Filipinos is great. As matters now stand we tax Filipino products that enter this country, and we hold out the threat that we will require such products to be carried to market only in American ships. Still, in other ways we seem to be doing fairly well by the Filipinos. Mr. Parker's

THE GIFT OF AN EMPEROR
The copy of this statue of Frederick the Great, presented to the United States by Emperor William, was dedicated in Washington November 19

recent severe arraignment of the government of the islands, his dreary picture of present conditions there, and his demand that the hope of national independence be extended to the people, have brought from Governor Wright explicit declarations as to the state of the country very different from those made by his distinguished critic. Americans, for the peace of their own consciences, must desire that the Filipinos shall prosper under the rule of this nation. Certainly nothing but their prosperity and increase in civilization can justify the continuance of that rule.

Filipinos Long for Independence

Governor Wright declares that the civilized portions of the Philippines are at peace. Life and property are safe there. The crops are good and the people are fairly prosperous. Cities, villages and provinces have local self-government, in fact as well as in name, electing their own officials, who are native Filipinos. Government schools are teaching the people to read and write the English language. The taking of the census, upon which is to be based a scheme for representation in a provincial assembly, is well under way. That assembly, composed of native repre-

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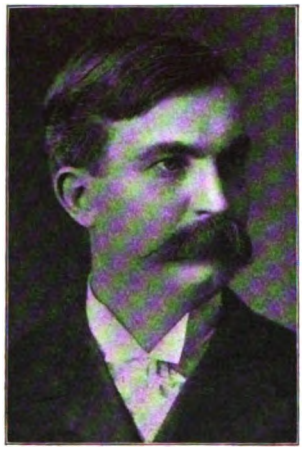
FRANK W. HIGGINS, New York

R. M. LA FOLLETTE, Wisconsin



F. M. WARNER, Michigan

JOHN C. CUTLER, Utah

WILLIAM LINDSAY, Montana

A. E. MEAD, Washington

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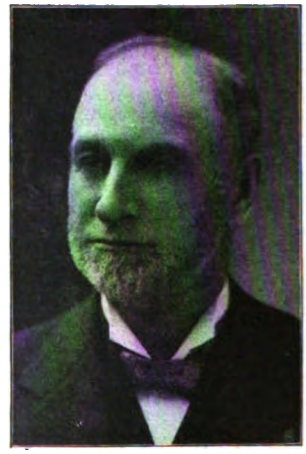

CHARLES J. BELL, Vermont

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REPUBLICAN CANDIDATES FOR GOVERNORSHIPS

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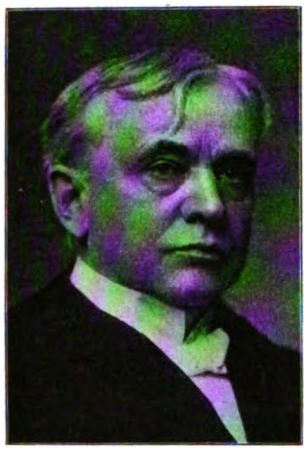

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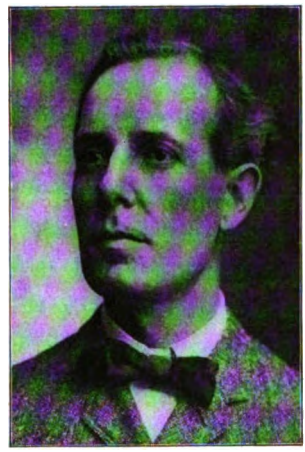
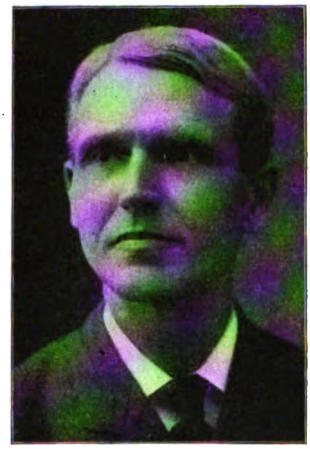


J. J. CORNWALL, West Virginia

LAWRENCE E. STRINGER, Illinois

GEORGE TURNER, Washington

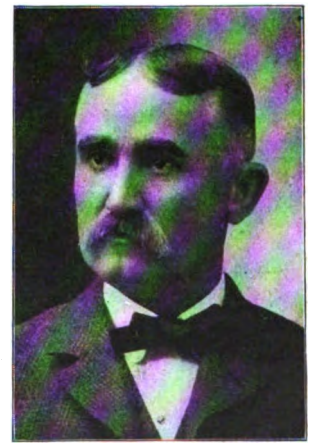


W. N. FERRIS, Michigan

J. F. MOYLE, Utah

D. M. DALE, Kansas

C. C. BLACK, Delaware



ELI H. PORTER, Vermont

SOME PROMINENT DEMOCRATIC GUBERNATORIAL CANDIDATES

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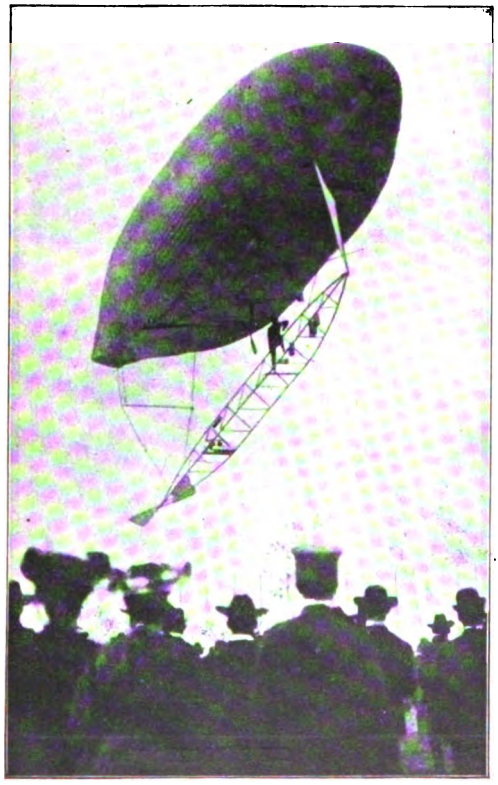
sentatives, is to share with the Philippine commission, three of whose eight members are Filipinos, the task of legislating for the people of the islands. This will be a long step in the direction of self-government. It will demonstrate the capacity of the people to work harmoniously together, notwithstanding tribal differences. However, that there is a widespread desire among the people for independence without further delay is unquestioned. This desire is publicly expressed in gatherings in Manila and elsewhere. Last October, upon the return of the Filipino commissioners who recently visited the United States, a banquet was given them by the Federal party, at which various speakers declared for national independence, quoting President Schurman, of the first Philippine commission, and other distinguished Americans in proof that the Filipinos were capable of managing their own affairs. Governor Wright and Judge Mapa, a native member of the insular supreme court, opposed this view, urging patience and careful preparation for the responsibilities of self-government, in order that the evils which have befallen South American republics might not come upon the people of the islands.



THE BALDWIN AIRSHIP
During its successful flight of October 31

Abuses of Private Car Lines

Railway companies as common carriers ought to provide themselves with the necessary equipment to conduct all branches of their business in a proper manner. Cars, however, cost a great deal of money. Therefore, most of the railway companies attach Pullman cars to their long-distance passenger trains. In the same way the hauling of perishable freight is done largely in refrigerator cars belonging to private companies. Other special kinds of freight also are transported in cars that are not the property of the railways. In a recent investigation conducted in Chicago by the Interstate Commerce Commission, a great deal of evidence was produced tending to show that shippers were subjected to oppressive charges for the icing of refrigerator cars belonging to private companies. Great packers of Chicago, having provided themselves with a large number of refrigerator cars, make contracts with railway companies by which the latter agree to haul all perishable freight in the packers' private cars, allowing a considerable payment per mile to the owners for every car so hauled. Being themselves in the produce business, they not only get the service for their own freight at cost, but a rebate besides, while their competitors are subjected to payment of the full freight rate and have to pay such bills for icing as the owners of the cars choose to impose. That this condition tends to monopoly is too clear to require argument. And it is equally clear that the remedy lies with Congress. Shippers and consumers, who have to pay the high prices produced by unreasonable freight rates, should set to work systematically to compel the national lawmaking body to grant authority to the Interstate Commerce Commission to regulate the operation of private car lines. Furthermore, the railways should be required to provide themselves with the necessary equipment to perform their functions as common carriers for all shippers on precisely the same terms. The day of special

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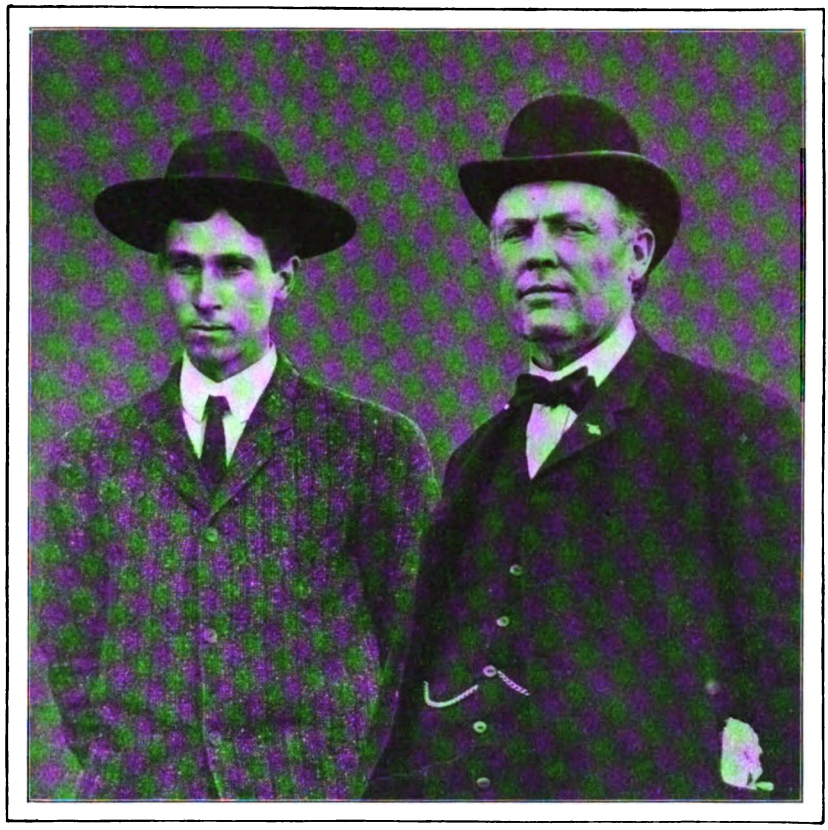

A. ROY KNABENSHUE, AERONAUT, AND THOMAS S. BALDWIN, INVENTOR

The successful flights of the Baldwin airship at St. Louis, in October, under the management of a young aeronaut, A. Roy Knabenshue, were the most remarkable tests of a dirigible airship yet held in the United States. The various mishaps which attended the experiments have not discouraged the inventor

privilege must come to an end in this country. American statesmen have been exasperatingly slow to see the importance of legislation that would strike at the root of this great evil.

Demand for Trade Reciprocity

Massachusetts Republicans held their state convention this year as late as October 7, the permanent chairman being Attorney-General Moody, of the President's cabinet. In his address he voiced the longing of New England for trade reciprocity with Canada, declaring that the question should be approached from a different point of view from that of reciprocity with any other nation except Cuba. He thought he might safely assure his hearers and the voters of Massachusetts generally that "in the near future this government will again invite Canada to consider in a friendly spirit our trade relations." The convention adopted a platform favoring reciprocity treaties with foreign countries, "especially with Canada and Newfoundland." Yet on this platform Governor Bates was defeated, but chiefly because of his relations with the Republican machine of the state. His opponent, a large manufacturer of shoes, who knows from his own experience the benefit of free hides, stood on a platform that denounced the existing tariff in round Democratic phrases. The newly-elected Republican Congressmen from Massachusetts are committed to reciprocity by their public declarations. Senator Lodge has been brought into line, protesting that the methods employed for that purpose were at once boisterous and unnecessary. This issue of reciprocity with

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Canada was of no less interest in Connecticut and Rhode Island during the recent national canvass. In short, as appears from the paper on another page, New England has reached a point where it intends to force its representatives in Congress to secure relief for its manufacturers by opening up new markets and providing free coal from the mines across the northern border. This determination may compel the unresponsive Senate to act.

SIR HENRY MORTIMER DURAND, MISS DURAND AND THE ATTACHES OF THE BRITISH LEGATION
The British Ambassador's tour through the Middle West has been the occasion for many friendly manifestations
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Underground Development of Cities

Now that New York has opened to the public nine of its fourteen miles of subway, dwellers in American cities are coming to realize more clearly than ever before that life underground is to be in time an important feature of the world's populous and progressive communities. London and Paris suffered from grotesquely inadequate transportation service until they began to run trains under the surface of the streets. New York, with its very dense population upon a long and narrow island, wisely went to work to blast out a subway from the solid rock and thus construct a suitable transportation system. The successful completion of this great undertaking in about four and a half years is properly a source of pride to those who now enjoy the benefits of real rapid transit. Boston for some years has possessed a commodious underground terminal for surface cars in its business center. Chicago has begun to prepare for the construction of downtown subways in connection with the new river tunnels that are made necessary by a law of Congress and by the enormous loss of lake traffic which the city has suffered because of its partially blockaded harbor. Such changes in intramural transportation are the result of imperative need. To burrow underground is not pleasant, but the intense life of cities can not limit its activities to those which are pleasurable.

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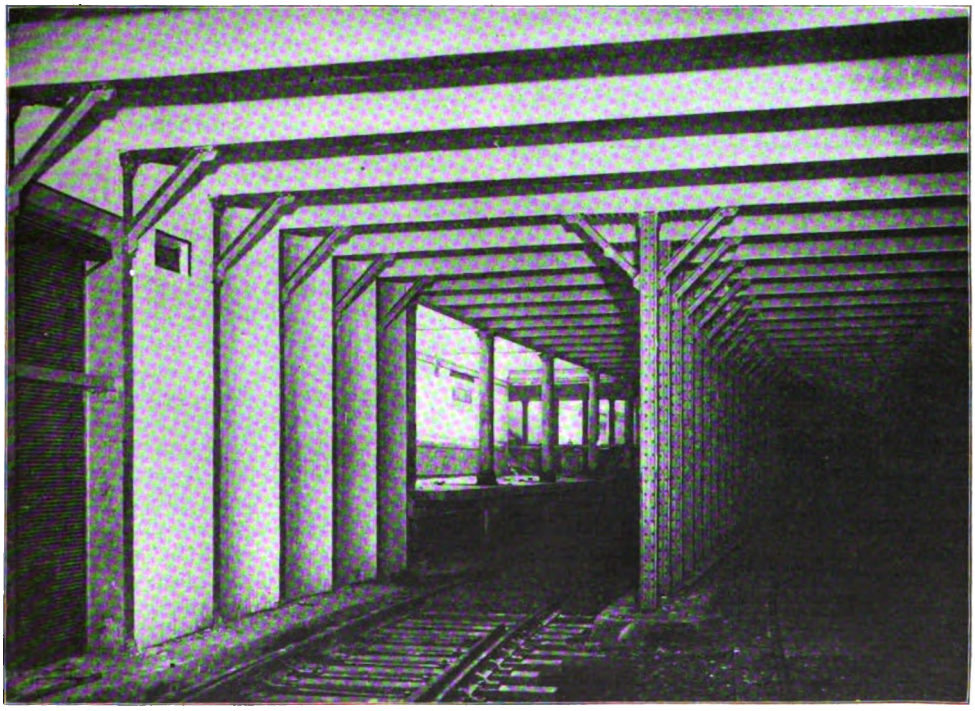
THE CITY HALL STATION



A SECTION OF TRACK IN THE NEW YORK SUBWAY

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H. CHANDLER EGAN
National Golf Champion. Photograph taken on the Exmoor Links, Illinois

American Railway Accidents

Because of the many terrible accidents on railways in the United States during recent months, by which hundreds of persons lost their lives and thousands were severely injured, a powerful sentiment is developing in favor of legislation by Congress which shall compel the use of additional safety devices. Investigations by coroners' juries and others have sufficiently demonstrated that reckless management both by railway officials and train crews is responsible for most of the fatal accidents. Flimsy passenger coaches, which are crushed into kindling wood in collisions, account for many deaths. Lack of the block system, the running of trains in two directions on a single track, overworked trainmen who fall asleep at their posts — these afford abundant proof of dangerous methods and inefficient management. Any railway which pays dividends on its capital stock before it is properly equipped with devices for the protection of its passengers is a recklessly managed concern. It should be compelled to attend to the needs of its patrons, without regard for the profits of its stockholders. The American public, which so freely takes the risk of death or mutilation when it travels on a railway, must give thought to its own interests. Its Congressmen must provide a remedy for the epidemic of railway collisions if the managers of the railways will not do so under pressure. Surely the stockholders of railways are not entitled to dividends so long as insubstantial passenger cars are operated over single-track lines without the use of block signals and other necessary devices. Public sentiment, appalled by the slaughter which has gone on so long unchecked, should demand well-considered laws from Congress, to overcome the many evils resulting from faulty equipment. The working of train crews for oppressively long hours is a common and very dangerous abuse which seems to be due to a false economy. Some of the worst accidents of the present year have been traced to the drowsiness or extreme fatigue of men who had been on duty longer than they could work with their mental faculties on the alert. Disregard of signals by trainmen is one of the worst of the causes which combine to make the record of American railways horribly tragic. This shows lax discipline or grievous overwork, for both of which abuses the management is to blame. Trainmen, on whom largely depends the safety of passengers, should be subjected to more careful supervision and stricter discipline. Apparently nothing short of the force of Federal law will arouse the managers of American railways to their duty in these respects.

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The Religious World

Evangelistic Campaign in St. Louis During the World's Fair

It had been hoped and expected that there would be a union movement of all denominations for evangelistic work in St. Louis during the World's Fair, and that Dr. G. Campbell Morgan would be its leader. But the plans failed, and the Presbyterians stepped into the breach. The General Assembly's Evangelistic Committee contributed the services of three men during the season and shared the expense of the salary of the general secretary with the Board of Home Missions. Otherwise the men and women of the local churches carried all the expenses of the campaign, which cost nearly $10,000. To their credit it is to be noted that the work was made essentially non-sectarian. It began in July, with three tents, but rapidly developed so that there were soon from eight to ten meetings held every day, in tents, shops, gospel wagons, hotels and inside the exposition grounds. Downtown, at noon, there was a meeting in a hall, and on Sunday nights in Music Hall, besides special meetings among the foreigners and the Jews. An average of six men went daily to the largest shops in St. Louis, to conduct services exclusively for workingmen. Ten thousand copies of the pamphlet on "The Relation of the Church to the Labor Movement" were distributed freely in the shops. Music Hall, which seats three thousand persons, was filled every Sunday night it could be had. Sunday afternoon meetings were held on the porch of the Inside Inn, with audiences of rarely less than one thousand, and also in the Japanese, Chinese and Filipino villages. The results of all this work it is impossible to measure. Five hundred meetings, an attendance of three hundred thousand, and an expression of a desire to lead a Christian life by five thousand, simply summarize in figures part of the story.

Congregational Anniversaries

The meetings of the American Board, at Grinnell, Iowa, and of the National Council, Home Missionary Society and American Missionary Association, at Des Moines, occupied the greater part of the month of October. This was the first time that the several societies had met together, and the experiment was regarded as a decided success. The most important of these meetings was that of the Council, which assembles but once in three years, and represents, though not in a legislative capacity, the entire body of Congregationalists. The retiring moderator of the Council, Dr. Amory Bradford, has held a broad view of the responsibilities of his office and has traveled among the churches with messages of encouragement and warning, issuing from time to time public statements which were received with interest. There is in the denomination, as in all individualist denominations, a party which resents the assumption of any quasi-episcopal powers by individuals, and an attempt was made to prevent such an interpretation of the moderator's duties in future, but the majority ruled otherwise. Hence, Dr. Washington Gladden, elected to succeed Dr. Bradford, will probably have an opportunity during the next

WASHINGTON GLADDEN
Moderator of the Congregational Council

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three years to do one of the most important services of his useful life in the cause of Congregational growth, Christian unity and social betterment. A notable feature of the meeting of the Council was a discussion of the relation of the churches to the labor movement, participated in by labor leaders and prominent pastors. The churches can do more to promote friendly relations with the laboring men by actual conferences than by resolutions or newspaper discussions.

Episcopalians and Divorce

The action of the Episcopal General Convention on divorce was in the nature of a compromise. The bishops desired to establish an absolute rule against the remarriage of divorced persons; the house of deputies refused to go so far, and the result was the adoption of a statute permitting remarriage of the innocent party only after the lapse of one year, and subject to full inquiry by the officiating clergyman into the circumstances. This is about as far as public sentiment will sustain any Protestant church in going at present. The extreme view of the marriage relation as a sacrament, permitting no divorce under any circumstances, and binding an unhappy couple together for life, without relief to the innocent party, has been gradually undermined by the influence of statute law, social customs and public opinion, and no longer controls the American people. On the other hand, the prevailing laxity of divorce legislation and practice is such that any check which may be given to it even by an excessive zeal for a too rigorous principle on the part of ecclesiastical bodies can not fail to be of advantage. There is no danger that American law or custom will ever be too strict on the subject of the marriage relation.

The Churches and Charities

The observation of the last Sunday in October as Prison Sunday has become quite general in some of our more progressive states. In some of them much attention is given to those measures that are preventive of pauperism, crime and degeneracy. The presentation of such themes would naturally arouse an increasing interest in the churches. Possibly that may account in some measure for the increasing activity in charitable affairs in the churches of Indiana. Nowhere do we recall so much interest in this very important field as that displayed in the state named. True it is that for many years the Society of Friends has had its "Committee on Sufferings," which has labored earnestly and well to better jail and prison conditions. Last year, however, the Synod of Indiana, of the Presbyterian Church, appointed a standing committee on charities of one person from each of the eight presbyteries. Later, when the presbyteries met, they appointed committees. The Christian Church, Baptist convention, two of the three conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and the United Presbyterian Church, in Indiana, have appointed similar committees. Their purpose is to inform their membership of the conditions of the many phases of the work of public charities and of the best methods in use, and to interest them both in the local and the state work.

A Church Crisis in South Africa

During the progress of the Boer War, Paul Kruger and Piet De Wet were the leaders of two parties among the Boers. That under Kruger entered on the war believing it to be a contest for the faith and for God; the other under De Wet maintained that the religious faith of the people could be preserved even if political independence were lost. The old conservatives were in the majority in the national church and, when the war was over, they raised the question of the treatment to be accorded those who had been religiously derelict. At the first synod held after the war, in May, 1903, a "pastoral letter" was sent to the "unfaithful," expressing the conviction that they had "committed a great sin against God and man," and demanding satisfaction for the insult to the religious and national feelings of the people. The De Wet party claimed that the identification of the cause of the Boers with the cause of God was the wrongful act, and, in conjunction with the British authorities, organized an independent Dutch church. It is called the "New Dutch Reformed Church" and is numerically weak, but has been officially recognized by the government.

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THE RAILROAD STATION AT YOKOHAMA ON DEPARTURE OF THE MINISTER OF WAR FOR MANCHURIA

JAPAN CELEBRATES HER VICTORIES

BY

JOHN L. DEARING

"HAVE you never seen a '*Gyoretsu*'?"

"Why, no, but I have seen great celebrations and torch-light processions and all that sort of thing in America and I suppose it is something like that; is it not?"

"Ah, but if you have not seen a genuine Japanese '*Gyoretsu*' in celebration of one of Japan's great victories you have never known the possibilities of flags and lanterns and processions."

So much I certainly hope you can believe. But if you did not see the decorations and processions that marked the celebration of the capture of Liaoyang you never will realize how much even Japan can do in picturesque festivities. The celebration which occurred on the 5th, 6th and 7th of September and continued through several following days was in reality the result of the preparations for the fall of Port Arthur. Weeks ago that long-expected event seemed near at hand, and big arches were built in the shape of the square Japanese *torii* at street corners. On every house was levied a tax to secure the amount necessary for a complete display, and, in addition, every one vied with others in making preparations for a grand celebration. Here and there big poles were erected to support immense flags hung across the street. Before houses and stores poles were put up

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"THE COUNTRY BROKE OUT INTO A BLAZE OF BANNERS"

and wound with red and white bunting, and all along the street at distances of ten feet apart were erected posts ten feet high, with wire strung along the top, for the hanging of Japanese lanterns. Thousands of paper lanterns were prepared all decorated with the Japanese flag. Paper flags of all sizes, as well as more durable ones of cotton and bunting and silk, were everywhere.

But the fall of Port Arthur was deferred. The government seemed to change its policy, and instead of the rapid assault which it was estimated by the government would cost Japan at least ten thousand brave men, it seems that haste was not so necessary and that by a slower course lives could be saved and the fortress just as surely taken in the end. The evergreens on the arches faded and were renewed again and again. The red bunting was washed into the white by the occasional showers and had to be replaced by new; and still the desired news from Port Arthur was delayed.

Then came the glad news of even a greater victory than the fall of Port Arthur, a victory in reality of much farther reaching significance, although, when all its history is recalled there is a sentiment regarding the taking of Port Arthur which makes that event assume an undue importance. The papers sent out their runners with the jangling of sleigh bells to deliver the expresses reporting the fall of Liaoyang and the "Tolling 'em on of the Russians."

Japanese cities are divided into sections and in each section a small fee paid by each house secures the delivery at each house of information or instruction regarding the time and manner of displays of flags and general celebrations. On the evening of September 4 these messengers went from house to house with their instructions. On the morning of the 5th the entire country broke out into a blaze of banners, flags, large and small. Here and there was an American or English flag; but the air was fairly alive with the

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"THE COMBINATION OF DRUMS, TIN WHISTLES AND ACCORDIONS"

Japanese red sun in a white field, or the war flag with its red rays streaming. The colors were only red and white and the bunting, wound about poles everywhere, was set off by the green of the immense arches. Innumerable lanterns lined the street and hung from tall poles in long festoons. No wonder that the price of lanterns went up from two cents and a half to twenty-five cents, and that finally none were to be had. All through the next day the people were busily engaged in completing their preparations for even a grander display in the evening. Transparencies were prepared displaying mottoes of congratulation, or scenes from the war or humorous pictures of falling bears and eagles, on their backs, tumbling through space with wings outspread and claws clutching at the air. And when the night came the panorama baffles description. In the light of the paper lanterns everywhere one saw the red sun in its white field on flags and banners and bunting and transparencies. And then the processions! Those who have seen a torch-light procession in America, with the air filled with smoke of the torches and the grimy tin lamps dripping their oil over their bearers, know nothing of an oriental procession with its thousands of pretty lanterns of all shapes and sizes, borne aloft upon bamboo sticks, each lantern decorated with the Japanese flags or some fanciful design—a veritable river of fire growing and rippling till lost in the distance.

And such music as the procession blared forth? Japan is in the transition stage as regards martial music. During the China-Japan War "Marching Through Georgia" came into vogue and everybody played *at it*. Now there have been added "John Brown's Body," "Caledonia" and a few Japanese airs that have an element of marching music in them. And every boy or young man is trying to grasp a few strains of this music and has no hesitancy at appearing in public as soon as he gets his instrument. It wou[1-2]

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that a fife and drum corps is the goal of ambition. At all events the combination of drums, tin whistles and accordions succeeding now and then in producing a strain that suggests a tune leaves one in doubt as to whether we have an imitation of what was known in New England as the Ancients and Horribles of the Fourth of July or a Chinese band that has got out of tune. But it is all done with so much zest that one can but grit his teeth, hold on to his ears and cry "*Banzai*" with the crowd.

EVERY STREET IS HUNG WITH LANTERNS AND BUNTING

The streets rang with the continuous shouting of the procession and the reply shouts of the onlookers as one band after another passed by. And yet all was as orderly as one could wish. The police service was admirable. A lifted, white-gloved hand of a police sergeant was sufficient to restrain the greatest rush. Wise provisions had been made by the force for accidents. Here and there ambulances and stretchers had been stationed, but not one was wanted. Not a drunken man was to be seen.

And listen, ye temperance advocates, and learn a lesson from the Orient. At the beginning of the war the Emperor issued a proclamation to the people ask-

CELEBRATING THE VICTORY OF LIAOYANG

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ing that every unnecessary and useless expense should be curtailed during the war. Hence *saki* drinking has been very largely given up for a time. And when funds are wanted for a celebration, it is said to cost the people nothing, as they use the money that has been saved from drink and which would have otherwise been spent uselessly. And thus it is possible to secure such a popular rejoicing throughout the country with scarcely a drunken man anywhere. Is it possible to secure such a result anywhere else in the world?

It is not necessary to add that the foreign residents entered into the rejoicing as heartily as the Japanese, but extensive as were their decorations upon their big houses and business blocks there was lacking that harmony of effect which comes from the lower houses, the poles of lanterns here and there, the arches and the waving flags of the narrow streets.

With the fall of Port Arthur, to which the Japanese are confidently looking, will come another and if possible an even greater celebration. The confidence and unhesitancy with which the Japanese plan and prepare for nothing but victory, in any other nation would make one dread self-confidence and presumption on the part of the people. But it is not to be seen here. The quiet spirit which bears without complaint the boasts of the Russians and their insults, the ruthless massacre of villagers or unwarranted sinking of fishing boats and ships; the spirit of self-respect with which they treat their prisoners as carefully as prisoners were ever cared for by a nation, all this makes one unite with the crowd on every suitable occasion in shouting with the enthusiasm of the Japanese patriot himself, and almost with his self-forgetful spirit, "*Teikoku Banzai*"—"Long live the Japanese people!"

NEW LEVIES LEAVING YOKOHAMA FOR THE FRONT

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RESTORING A NATIONAL WATERWAY

BY ELLIS B. USHER

FOR thirty-five years the traffic of the Upper Mississippi River has been mainly confined to the towing of rafts of logs and lumber. This business is rapidly drawing to an end with the exhaustion of the pine in northern Wisconsin and Minnesota, and, within the past three years a new interest has developed for deeper channel improvements on this important portion of the greatest of our natural internal thoroughfares.

A systematic improvement of the upper Mississippi was inaugurated in the early seventies, largely through the personal efforts of the late Hon. William Windom, of Minnesota, then United States Senator. The method adopted was one that had already been proved in Germany, and in general terms contemplated the narrowing of the channel with wing dams, and the revetment of the banks to prevent erosion. The work has been done under direction of the engineers of the United States army and has resulted in establishing a minimum channel of four and one-half feet at low water, between the headwaters and St. Louis. The entire sum expended on this stretch of more than seven hundred miles of river has approximated $17,000,000, about $6,000,000 of which has been spent on the rapids at Rock Island and Keokuk.

This shallow channel was quite satisfactory for rafting purposes, but the new interest in river improvement originates in commercial and manufacturing circles, and successful use for such purposes demands deeper water throughout the entire season of navigation.

The details of the general work of the improvement will be best understood by reference to the accompanying illustrations. The Meeker Island Dam above Minneapolis is the key to the reservoir system of the upper Mississippi—the gate that stores water, in the spring, to be fed out from reservoirs at low water. The work of deepening the river channel is prosecuted by building wing dams from the bank toward the thread of the stream, at right angles with the current. These dams are constructed by first sinking mattresses of willow brush and loading them with rock. The general appearance of the completed

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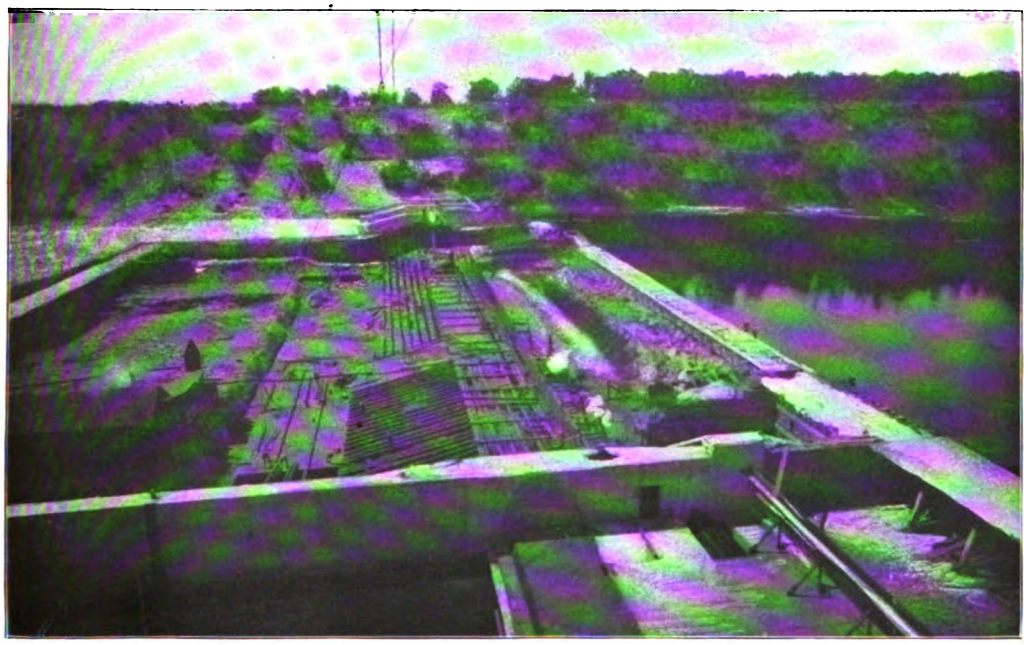
work is illustrated by the picture of a closing dam near Fort Madison, Iowa. This picture is taken at low water. Closing dams are built across the heads of chutes or bayous, to confine the waters to the main stream. In addition to this work, banks that are likely to wash and form sand bars are protected by stone revetment. The general effect of this plan is to assist the current, by increasing its volume, to do the real work of deepening. It scours its own way and frees itself from obstructions. In this way the 4½-foot channel has already been obtained. To increase this to a minimum depth of six feet, at low water, will be accomplished by narrowing the channel. It is approximately eight hundred feet wide now. To get the required six feet, it must be narrowed two hundred feet. This will require that the wing dams all be raised somewhat at the shores, and lengthened at their channel ends. It is estimated that this work will require about $15,000,000, to be expended in a term of about ten years.

The principal cities along the river, from St. Louis to Minneapolis, began to awake, three years ago, and a movement that had its inception in Quincy, Illinois, has resulted in a strong organization known as the Upper Mississippi River Improvement Association, which held its third annual convention in Dubuque, Iowa, in November.

One thing accomplished by this association was an official visit, begun late last August, from the rivers and harbors committee of the National House of Representatives, the first ever made by the committee to this portion of the river. They were accompanied by Brigadier-General Alexander Mackenzie, chief of engineers of the United States army, and made a complete tour of inspection from the reservoirs above Minneapolis to St. Louis, stopping part of a day, en route, to examine the Hennepin Canal.

It is expected that one result of this visit will be that the Upper Mississippi River Improvement Association will take steps for more active and aggressive work to arouse the people of the upper river to the importance of their interests and to the overshadowing importance of deeper waterways to those interests. The Iowa Legislature led off, last winter, with a memorial to its Senators and Representatives in Congress, in behalf of a deeper channel in the upper river, and Minnesota, Wisconsin, Illinois and Missouri will, this winter, be asked to follow this example.

This movement for deep water trans-



THE MEEKER ISLAND DAM

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THE RIVERS AND HARBORS COMMITTEE AT MEEKER ISLAND

SINKING BRUSH TO FORM FOUNDATIONS FOR WING DAMS

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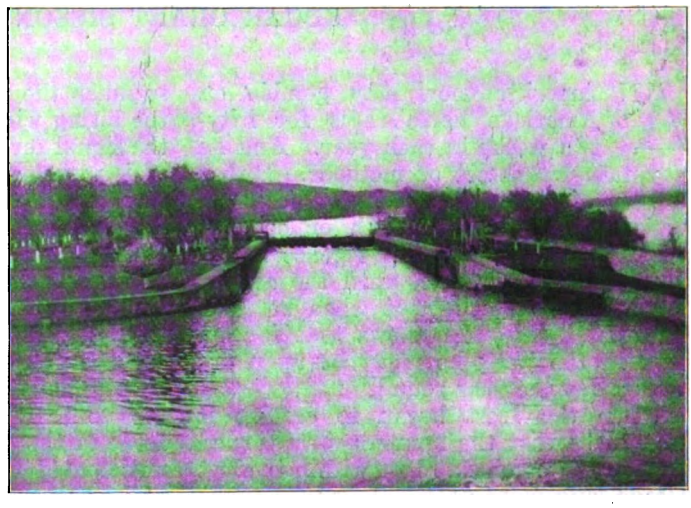
THE CLOSING DAM NEAR FORT MADISON, IOWA

portation points not only to the revival of an internal freight traffic by water, but it will be important, also, for its reflex influence upon rates by rail. Railways probably have as much to expect from the improvement of waterways as any other interest, when they are brought to view their own prospects wisely. The history of river development in France, where $250,000,000 has been expended, while we have spent $17,000,000 on the upper Mississippi, is that it creates an entirely new commerce, and even the railways that parallel the streams continue to increase their traffic and incomes. This only proves anew the universal rule that every contribution to the facilities of civilized life creates new wants to be supplied. For the same reason the railways that cross the continent will never have much real competition from the Panama Canal. The element of time is more important, in this day, than the element of cost, as to a vast amount of traffic.

It is not generally realized that the Mississippi and its affluents drain, in whole or in part, thirty-two states and territories, but a glance at the map makes this stupendous fact plain. The ninety-sixth meridian divides the country, geographically, into two nearly equal parts. The population east of this line is sixty-six million four hundred and ninety-nine thousand, which is seven times greater than that west of it. Population and the area of arable land are very nearly coterminous with the area of agricultural rainfall, therefore, from the point where the great arid plains begin, this side of the Rocky Mountains, until they are crossed and the arable strip along the margin of the Pacific Ocean is reached, there is very little agricultural improvement to be expected except as a result of costly irrigation, and that must of necessity be limited in area.

Another pregnant fact is the great importance of the five states of Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois, Iowa and Missouri, that are most immediately interested in this great improvement. They have within their borders eighteen per cent of the population of the country. They contain nineteen per cent of the manufacturing establishments of the entire union, with sixteen per cent of the manufacturing capital. Their combined area is fifty



THE MIDDLE LOCK AT KEOKUK, IOWA

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per cent greater than the empire of Germany or than the republic of France. At the headwaters of the great river, Minnesota leads the wheat-producing states with an income, from that source alone, of over $50,000,000. Wisconsin, her nearest neighbor, has first place as a producer of rye, and stands second only to New York as a dairy state, with an annual production that exceeds in value the wheat crop of Minnesota, amounting to more than $55,000,000. Illinois leads in the production of corn and oats, with Iowa a close second, and Missouri comes in as the agricultural center of the union, the center of improved farms being a little southwest of Jefferson. The center for the six great cereals is just below Keokuk, on the Mississippi, and the center of farm values is in Illinois, a little way east of Quincy.

These facts taken from the last United States census are but examples of many important statements that might be made to enforce upon the reader the local importance of these states, but they represent only a small part of the great possibilities of proper and comprehensive improvement by the general government of our internal waterway system. The Mississippi River and its tributaries now comprehend over sixteen thousand miles of navigable water. No railway system in the country is comparable to these waterways, in the number and importance of the cities and interests along their lines. In the early days settlement was governed by proximity to navigable water, and the force of this natural influence can never be successfully counteracted by artificial means. The forty-nine cities and villages on the upper Mississippi, including St. Louis, have, in the aggregate, a population of 1,313,825 souls, yet most of them are under forty thousand. But no 650 miles of railway on the continent can point to such a number of flourishing centers within its territory.

With proper recognition of such facts our people will have no difficulty in appreciating the widespread benefits to accrue to the whole nation when the demand of the upper Mississippi River is granted and a minimum low-water channel of six feet is secured.

RACE-TRACK GAMBLING

ITS ALLIES AND ITS FOES

BY

EDGAR GRANT SISSON

AN American now may gamble on American horse races for fifty-two weeks in each year. And he may take his choice of methods. Either he may step into a convenient poolroom when he goes out to lunch or he may couple travel with the indulgence in his mania. In either case, until the arrival of the inevitable moment when he finds himself "broke," he knows that for six days in the week he may bet upon six races a day the year round.

When the frost began to crackle it used to be that the runners were turned loose in the paddock. But within the last decade, and more particularly within the last five years, winter racing has become so much the regular order of events that the biting winds of the north merely give the signal for the transportation of stables and jockeys, touts and dupes, to the milder climes of the South and of the Pacific slope. With the last tracks around Chicago and New York closing their gates upon their shivering, well-picked devotees, New Orleans is prepared for the few who survived the metropolitan plucking and for the fresh army of those who beg to be plucked. Such indeed is the hopefulness with which the arrival of an increased force of the latter optimists of fortune is anticipated that not one but two tracks will be operated for their benefit at New Orleans this winter. In jealousy of the

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pair, still a third track will be opened at Hot Springs, Arkansas.

By the holidays the trio of courses will have rivals in the far West. One meeting will be in progress at alternate tracks at San Francisco, and another at Los Angeles. The latter track came into existence a year ago, and, owing to the small territory upon which it could draw for attendance, its failure was prophesied by those who doubted the sway of the gospel of seeking to get something for nothing. But it has prospered, for its audience for betting purposes is the same as that of a track close to the largest city in the country—an audience limited only by the possibilities of the telegraph wire and by the measure of the industry of handbook makers and poolroom proprietors in every city in the country.

When springtime comes, and New Orleans has garnered its harvest, the path of the meetings will be northward to Memphis, to Nashville, to Kansas City, to historic Churchill Downs, to Cincinnati, and then to the tenacious circle of tracks around St. Louis, Chicago and New York, there to abide from late spring to late autumn.

A description of race-track gambling implies an account of the elements which enter into it. These elements are: 1. Race tracks and race horses. 2. A public. 3. A gambling opportunity afforded by track books or poolroom books.

The instruments which work unitedly for a dominant gambling spirit are: 1. Race-track and race-horse owners. 2. Bookmakers. 3. Those newspapers which publish "dope sheets." 4. Telegraph and telephone companies serving race results. 5. Railroad and street car systems feeding the tracks. 6. Millionaire plungers.

Handbooks

Of the elements proper all are interdependent except the poolroom books, more familiarly known as handbooks. Were it not for the handbooks, the gambling opportunity would be limited to that afforded by bookmaking within the track enclosures, and the gambling public would consist only of those persons who went to the track—a condition which would simplify the whole topic of race-horse betting, and at least deprive it of its most insidious menace.

The link which binds the handbook to the race track is defensive; it is in fact an alliance formed by two natural rivals against a common foe. Handbooks, operated in the cities, easy of access to the public, keep many gamblers from going to the tracks, and make it possible for a person to become a race-horse gambler without ever having set eyes on a race horse. This last fact is to the advantage of the tracks, inasmuch as it adds to the general audience, but it does not reconcile track owners and track bookmakers to the direct loss occasioned by the widespread betting far from the tracks. The latter would declare universal war upon the handbooks but for the fear that in the ensuing struggle they would arouse a public sentiment strong enough to crush themselves and their enemies together. So, for the sake of peace, the incongruous pair snarl at one another secretly, but rarely bite.

What, it may be asked, is the exact distinction between the handbook and the track book?

Chiefly that of location, though there are minor differences of method. A turf book, to begin with, is a record composed of the names of the horses to start in a given race, and the betting odds against each horse. On tracks where bookmaking is legal, as it is in the State of New York, or where it is winked at by the sheriff, as it is in Cook county outside of the city of Chicago, this record is chalked on a blackboard in letters and figures large enough to be seen at a range of many feet. On tracks where gambling is avowedly forbidden and tacitly permitted, as it was at Washington Park in Chicago until the present season, the bookmakers do not resort to the blackboard, but pencil the odds upon the printed entry cards. This practice gave the name of handbook.

Any system of written slips can be made to do duty as a handbook. The poolrooms in the wide-open days in the history of every city used the blackboards, deserting them for the handbook only as the police pressure—which is another name for aroused public opinion—became stronger.

In parallelwise the frank tickets of open bookmaking have been modified to meet the demands of secrecy until they have become cards meaningless to any but

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the man who issues them. The aim is to create nothing which can be used as evidence of bookmaking before a grand jury or in court. It is an aim, moreover, which is largely successful.

By common usage the term handbook has come to mean a betting book run anywhere outside of race-track enclosures. Only in the infrequent case of some track like Washington Park, Chicago, is it now applied to track books.

The handbook does more than figure as an element in making gambling opportunity. It also is one of the chief instruments in creating the gambling spirit. Without the handbook and its tempting, insinuating ally, the newspaper "dope sheet," thousands and thousands who now must be studied under the classification of victims would never have known the gambling vice.

The "dope sheet" arouses the passion; the handbook makes its satisfaction a matter of ease.

"Dope Sheets" and the Newspapers

A "dope sheet" or a "form sheet" varies from a tabulation of figures, supposed to be based mathematically upon the previous performances of a given number of horses, to the boldly advertised guesses or "tips" of a salaried newspaper "tipster," the latter being an individual unduly dignified by the name of "handicapper."

When it is related that of two horses pitted against each other in a race, one should win "on form," the purport is that in view of the last race he ran, of the weight he is to carry, of the distance he is to run, and of the condition, fast or slow, of the track upon which he is to run, one animal is the theoretical superior of the other.

The laborious comparison of all these factors constitutes the craft of handicapping. Being an art of figures, it can make no allowance for accidents, and has to be based upon the assumption that every factor will perform its allotted function—that the trainer will have the horse in shape, that the jockey will ride a perfect race, that the betting odds will have no influence upon the outcome of the race, and that the start will be even. When it is known that under these theoretically perfect conditions the winning chance of any horse depends either upon a minute but constant gain of a fraction of an inch at each leap in the race or upon an inconstant finishing power enabling him to outjump his competitors by several feet in each of the closing strides of the journey to the wire—all of this without regard for the shifting of positions in the struggle of each jockey to save ground by seeking to "cut the turns" and to "get the rail"—it will be realized how unstable is this, the "surest" method at the disposal of the person who believes the race track the shortest road to fortune.

Nor is it the handicapping system at its best that the newspapers of the "dope-sheet" class employ in soliciting their patrons to become race-track gamblers. The time and care demanded for abstruse handicapping are not at the disposal of the "tipsters." In the majority of instances they content themselves with a cursory glance over the past two or three races of each of the entries, make a snapshot comparison of the weights, take into account a measure of paddock gossip about fast trials and "good things" and print for the easily duped public the list of their choices for the six races.

But the way in which newspapers of the "dope-sheet" standard prepare this evil food for their readers is entirely distinct from and subordinate to the responsibility which should be brought and held to their doors for offering it in any shape. Such newspapers can not even plead the straightforward excuses of the turf journals—that they are printed for a class which knows and buys them for what they are. Under the practice fostered by this brand of daily papers we are given the spectacle of schoolboys and girls receiving unconsciously the first lessons in moral depravity; of easily influenced wage-earners sacrificing money, prospects and eventually life under the incitement of a daily fare of "get-rich-quick" temptation; of chance extolled above industry, and of vice brazenly benefited. Newspaper proprietors employing, for commercial reasons, the methods of panderers, send out on the streets and into the homes wares which prate on one page of virtue and on another give "the best bets of the day." For this vicious journalism there is no defense. It is as far beyond the scope of enterprising newspapermaking as it should be beyond the pale of the law.

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As long as there are horse races all newspapers will print news about them. But the line between legitimate news and the illegitimate degradation of it is as clean cut as a black pencil stroke across a sheet of white paper. No casuistry can blur the sharpness.

The facts about the race that has been run can be told for themselves. They are the news of yesterday. When those same facts are remarshaled to give the prospective bettor material for making his choice in the race to be run in the future, they have lost their news significance and have become merely tools for gambling. When the newspaper assumes to go one step further and, after setting forth the information, proceeds itself to make deductions and to declare a list of "probable" winners, it has itself become a gambling instrument and a gambling lure. The dividing line is well understood by newspapermakers, and newspapers guided by men of conscience are taking increased care to keep in the safety zone.

Many newspapers, in order to keep free from any chance of misinterpretation, have curtailed the tabulated accounts of the races. When the result of each race is given in chart form—the position of each horse shown at various stages in the contest, along with weight and jockey—any "turf fiend" may make his own formbook by cutting out the separate charts and pasting them in memoranda shape. Several dignified publications, more especially in the East, have employed this method of evading responsibility for a number of years, but as the issue becomes plainer in the general mind, their attitude will become more and more uncomfortable. When they have to choose between respectability and the charts they will drop the charts.

One wealthy Chicago afternoon newspaper showed the effect of a moral awakening this summer by abandoning an elaborate system of handicapping. It was an expensive step temporarily, as it left the "dope-sheet" field open to rivals not hampered by scruples, but the eventual gain in standing proved to be a recompense.

Although Chicago is the second racing center in the country, its influential morning newspapers have kept themselves clear of the "dope-sheet" taint. Only one morning paper is in the handicapping business. St. Louis affords the worst example of newspaper debasement in the country. New York contains types both of the highest and the lowest class of newspapers, and in this, as in other tests, they act in accord with their breed. San Francisco is deeply marked with the blight.

The Army of Small Bettors

From the stimulus of desire to the attempt to feed it is but one step. Is it any wonder that the clerks, the stenographers, the barbers, the factory workers, the mass of small salaried people of all descriptions and all ages, once their appetite for gambling has been whetted by the tales of winnings set forth in the sporting prints and by the array of tips spread before them—is it any wonder that these ripe victims seek out the accessible handbooks, or are overjoyed when the handbook men seek them out?

Any morning in Chicago or New York one may see girls of sixteen and seventeen, with their heads close together over a newspaper tabulation, trying to figure out "winners" during their street car or elevated road ride to the factories and offices where they are employed. Listen to them and you will hear the language of the track. They know the relative reputations of the jockeys, and can talk glibly of their riding weights and of their seats in the saddle. They know the horses and their supposed likings for track, weight and distance. They are ready for handbook plucking.

Meet them on the way home and you will hear them say sadly that "luck" had not been with them that day, and will see them tear up their tickets and throw them away. Only one thing is worse for these girls than losing, and that is winning. Losses may bring a tardy, dejected reform. Winnings lead to the frenzy of daily trips to the race courses themselves; to the spurring of all wild emotions; to the plunge into the black, engulfing chasm where life is the least of the things lost.

Observation will show that boys take their first gambling lessons earlier than girls. If they have sucked the poison, they will be hardened gamblers when not half way through their teens. The idea

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of working for a living is lost as soon as the fever of chance is in their blood. In poolrooms, on race trains, at the tracks, the majority of "regulars" are young in years, though old in everything else.

But though their schooling is sooner acquired than that of girls, it is begun at the same place, the handbook kindergarten, and the instructor is the same, the newspaper "dope sheet."

Fighting the Evil

Until six months ago, both in New York and Chicago, the handbook plucking was conducted with a boldness almost beyond realization. The commissioners for the handbooks worked with the method of city-directory canvassers. They visited every office in the sky-scraping office buildings. They took commissions not infrequently from both employer and employes. When the heads of certain establishments hindered their coming, they solicited the clerks as they came and went during the noon hour. They had their regular customers on whom they called, as the butcher's man calls on the housekeeper. The handbooks themselves were operated openly in nearly every saloon. The police were inactive and public spirit dormant. The "gamble," as one western track owner calls it, seemed to be galloping unchecked over the civic body.

The challenge to decency, however, was too vainglorious to be borne. In the two cities almost simultaneously a war was begun upon the vice. In both cities the gamblers laughed at it, but in both they since have had reason to forget that the warfare ever looked amusing to them.

In one respect conditions were vitally different in the two cities. New York State has a racing law under which it is legitimate to operate books in the race-track enclosures. In Illinois all bookmaking is illegal. In New York accordingly the authorities had the tacit support or at least the neutrality of the race tracks, who found themselves the gainers by the wiping out of the means of betting in the city itself. In Chicago the mayor and his chief of police had to fight all gamblers (except by barest possibility, one notable exception concerning which more will be said hereafter).

After a summer and autumn of battling, the man with a betting itch can "get his money down" in Chicago if he knows where to go, but this much has been temporarily though insubstantially achieved: The small bettor, the "piker" on a salary, and the boy and girl newspaper victim, in order to rob himself or herself by handbook betting, must have the bad luck of knowing where a masked book is being operated.

How this moderate success of the law was secured brings into the account the part played in gambling mechanism by telegraph and telephone companies.

Telegraph and Telephone Companies

As soon as the double municipal movement began it was perceived that the handbook men had for their strongest ally the Western Union Telegraph Company, as by that channel they received from the race courses information on starters, odds and results. The company had the monopoly on poolroom service for the country. It paid a rental fee to every track and still reaped a hundredfold profit by selling its information to the countless poolrooms and to different ticker companies. The corporation was in a position to be befriended by every influence and to make repayment for every favor. It was the backbone of the national gambling organization.

To rout the company out of its post of vantage meant tiresome and probably unavailing efforts at prosecution in a score of states. It was decided to make an appeal to the heads of the company on strictly moral grounds, and to ask them as a means of saving the youth of the land, to give up their handsome but unholy profits. Few believed that the appeal would have weight.

But it did. Miss Helen Gould, a heavy holder in Western Union stock, has been named by rumor as the deciding influence, but of the truth of the gracious story one can not certainly say. The simple fact is recorded that the Western Union voluntarily retired from its post as a vendor of race-track news. It did not take its wires away from the tracks, however, and did not cease to be a carrier of private race-track information. But to all appearances up to the present time it has restricted itself rigidly to the duties of a carrier.

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This unforeseen act obliged the poolroom bookmakers to provide private information channels between themselves and the tracks. Some persons had to be at the trackside to send them messages. This meant indefinite delay as compared with the old, frictionless system, and gave sharpers an inviting temptation to try and beat the bookmakers by false information. However, the handbooks were still in business.

The Chicago campaign from this point on may be taken as typical of all that may be accomplished by police attack upon the lawless industry. Mayor Harrison followed up the Western Union victory by threatening the local "ticker" system with loss of franchise if it did not discontinue its race service. The ticker dropped the service. The bookmakers looked to the saloons as their natural harbors. The mayor declared that whenever a handbook was found running in a saloon the saloonkeeper's license would be revoked. He kept his word and the saloonkeepers in self-defense expelled the handbook operators.

The latter then sought refuge in cigar stores and in rooms in office buildings. By this time the stunted telegraph service had ceased to be anything but a peril to the handbook craft, for a line of uniformed messengers was the easiest of trails for the police flying squadron to follow. The telephone was substituted as an information getter.

The city appealed to the telephone company to refuse service to gambling telephones. The response was that the company could not discriminate between its customers. A personal plea was made to the directors of the corporation, a body containing several avowed reformers, but they replied that by refusing service and removing instruments the company would make itself liable to court attack for breaking its contracts.

The city offered to provide the legal defense, and in court prevented the issuance of a threatened injunction. The company thereupon agreed to make no opposition to the tearing out of telephones wherever the police found them devoted to gambling purposes. This brought the struggle down to a daily search for contraband telephones. Once discovered they were torn out.

The Police and the Bookmakers

Along this line the skirmishing still proceeds, a desultory conflict dependent for success solely upon the energies of the police, and conducted against the obstacles of apathy and selfish private and corporate interests. Lately the device has been adopted of keeping all evidence of the handbooks in steel vaults, and of installing the telephones in the same spot. When there is an alarm of police, the vault is locked and the raiders come upon the innocent spectacle of two or three men writing quietly at different desks. Unless the conspirators have made the error of leaving one of their companions in the safe, they are safe even from a police siege, unless the police blow down the safe door.

In one recent raid the police commander was sure he heard the safe door click as he forced an entrance into the outer office. Finding the occupants of the room at a distance from the safe he concluded that one at least of the gamblers was inside the vault. So he and his men made themselves comfortable and said they would stay. The prisoners in the vault were stubborn sufferers, but at the end of four hours the supply of air began to give out, and they began to pound for relief. The proprietor of the place, to save their lives, opened the door, and out they fell, steaming with perspiration and exhausted. They had employed the hours of their imprisonment, however, to chew up and swallow the betting sheets, and no actual evidence of handbooking remained.

The daily raids of September averaged from five to twenty arrests. On one day a place run by a "big" gambler was raided twice in an afternoon, and more inmates were found the second time than the first. Left unharassed, there is no doubt that in a single day the bookmakers could spring back to their old power.

On the side of the enforcement of law, however, the fact remains that the experiences of the summer in Chicago have shown that police sincerity can for a time check handbook activity, and that it can inflict heavy financial losses on the gamblers.

The following table, official from March 15 to November 1, tabulates the results of the campaign:

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Average daily amount of handbook bets in March	$400,000
Average daily amount of handbook bets in October	$ 3,500
Arrests for bookmaking, March 15 to November 1	2,278
Prisoners fined in police court	450
Indicted by grand jury	138
Fines imposed in police court	$ 10,770
Fines imposed by criminal court	$ 10,000
Pleaded guilty after indictment	60
Telephones torn out	280
Tickers torn out	15

The difficulties under which the police labor in securing convictions is shown by the fact that 2,015 arrests netted only 400 police court convictions and 108 grand jury indictments. The comparatively heavy criminal court fines arose from the action of sixty of the indicted men in entering the plea of "*nolle contendere,*" which cost them the fines, but which they hoped would prevent the records from showing that they had been convicted, their anxiety on the latter point being due to the clause in the law which says that a third conviction for gambling demands a penitentiary sentence. The tactical move was shrewd, but the state maintains that it will be unavailing, owing to a Supreme Court decision. The next move of the prosecutors, it is declared, will be to secure the indictment of the same gamblers on new charges as fast as evidence can be secured.

The practical failure to convict in police courts was due to the skill with which the gamblers invented equipments difficult to turn against them as evidence even when seized in the resorts. The counter course recently adopted by the police has been to raid the gambling places, have the inmates brought into police court and placed under bond, and the hearing of the cases continued long enough to permit indictments to be secured before the grand jury in the interval. Then the police court cases are dropped.

But convictions and sentences are slight blows compared to an average daily loss of $393,000 worth of business.

The heaviest blow directed against the race tracks themselves in the country at large during the season fell on Washington Park in Chicago. The track on which the American Derby, the great sporting event of the West, is run, was obliged to close after four days of a meeting rendered hopelessly uninteresting to spectators and unprofitable to owners and speculators by the anti-betting edict of Mayor Harrison. He asserted early in the season that bookmaking would not be permitted at the track and he was true to the promise.

The other so-called Chicago tracks are outside the city limits, and the sheriff of Cook County could not be induced to move against them. The repeated rumor that the city executive had one gambling ally, an astute race-track owner who plotted against Washington Park in the belief that his own track would reap the benefit of the overthrow, has not yet been shown to be based upon fact. A kindred rumor often has accused this same powerful personage of the sporting world of owning many of the biggest poolrooms throughout the country, but he has entered a stout denial to both allegations, maintaining outwardly that the prosperity of racing depends upon an alliance of tracks for the end of "keeping the sport clean," and declaring that his every interest as a track owner is opposed to any trafficking in poolrooms.

It may at least be said that if he strangled Washington Park he did not gain the reward he expected. Washington Park gave Chicago racing a tone. Without it, the race-track patrons have been confined more closely to the "regulars," and after the first of August there was a perceptible falling off in attendance.

Strikingly enough, however, the proportion of women remained constant through the fluctuations in attendance, averaging probably forty per cent of the whole. They form the maddest of all mad gamblers, taking losses most keenly and striving most desperately to repair them. Persons who have been able to gather information estimate that ninety per cent of the women race-track gamblers the country over quit hopeless losers at any given time, whether it be the end of a day or the end of a season.

No student of conditions, however, denies that the persons who reach the race tracks, regardless of their sex, need less protection than those who are preyed

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upon by the down-town poolrooms. The distinction is that between reforming hardened gamblers and preventing the entrance of new material into the feeders that turn out gamblers.

This argument, indeed, has been advanced by race-track interests themselves as a reason why bookmaking inside of track enclosures should be made legal by statute in Illinois as in New York. The gain promised is the breaking of the mutual interest tie between the tracks and the bookmakers, and the erection of barriers against the small, poor bettor by the method of raising the price of admission to the tracks from $1 to double that sum.

Inasmuch as the race-track privileges around Chicago, even under present conditions, are valued in clear profits at a round million dollars a season, it is within the bounds of reason to estimate that the track owners would be willing to spend that much on a legislature that would enact a law to their liking. Five per cent of the receipts likely would be the share offered the state. There has been intimation that a tentative effort will be made at Springfield this winter, but failure is its almost certain portion.

If the attempt is made, the race tracks will look to railroad companies, particularly those that profit directly through the existence of the tracks, for useful support.

Railroads usually pass unnoticed when race tracks are the targets, but without them there would be few tracks. Land is too valuable in the near vicinity of big cities to be used for race tracks, and generally they are located such a distance from town that not even the street cars reach them. The thousands of race goers are carried twice each day by the railroads, and at handsome profits. Where street car systems feed the tracks they also will be found banded with them.

Last of all and certainly not the least of the instruments which help the race tracks in their persistent campaign of casting the glamour of easily attained wealth over the minds of the impressionable are the "plunging" millionaires. The apparent success of wealthy plungers is the illustration always advanced by those who wish to justify their own gambling practices. The truth is that no plungers are lastingly successful. A man may make so much money away from the turf that the turf may not be able to devour it, but the chances are that when the craze has fastened itself to him he will desert everything else and feed himself and his fortune to it.

Can a millionaire actually be destroyed by race-horse betting? He can and is at the rate of least one a season. The fortune of one of the best-known sportsmen of his day, a man of world-wide note, was found at his recent death to have suffered even beyond the estimate of the friends who tried repeatedly to persuade him to cease putting enormous wagers on his own horses. They pointed out to him—and unavailingly, because the veil had fallen over his eyes—that every dollar he piled upon the horse carrying his colors was just another incentive given to a tribe of bookmakers and a band of rival horsemen to defeat his horse, by any method.

It has happened that one horse has been entered in a race for no other purpose than to dispose of the logical favorite. A crush at a turn, a favorite knocked out of his stride—that is all, but it is enough to shatter a fortune.

One of the boldest plungers of the present-day turf is credited with losing so much this year that he has decided to dispose of his stable at auction. He probably will be unable to purge himself of the fever, and so will be back in paddock and ring next year, but the instance loses no point from that.

The end is sure, alike for millionaire or piker. And the nation—must it abide the sight of its own moral peril? Does the doctrine that human nature must not be forced to be too good demand a compromise? Are race tracks essential to metropolitan life? Boston, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Milwaukee, Omaha and other cities have got along without them.

With Chicago, New York and the cities which have them, however, the immediate issue is that of restriction of the gambling opportunity.

To meet it two things are required: The suppression of newspaper "dope sheets" and the utter overthrow of the handbooks. Both feed the race tracks. The "dope sheets" are schoolmasters for the handbooks. The latter can not be wiped out while the former endure.

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PHILADELPHIA AND ITS GAS-WORKS

AN INSTANCE OF THE ADVANTAGES RESULTING FROM SUBSTITUTING PRIVATE FOR MUNICIPAL CONTROL OF A PUBLIC UTILITY

BY

HAYES ROBBINS

AUTHOR OF "THE EMPLOYERS' FIGHT AGAINST ORGANIZED LABOR"

ACCORDING to popular belief it takes a Philadelphia lawyer to prove the unprovable, but it would call for an unusually alert one to make out, with reference to Philadelphia herself, the case public-ownership advocates are seeking to establish in various parts of the country in favor of municipal operation of public-service gas plants. The issue of public ownership *per se* is not at stake in this instance; Philadelphia owns the gas-works, but in a good or evil hour, according to the point of view, leased the outfit to a private company for thirty years. The question, then, is on the results of operation under the two systems; and for that matter it is the question of operation rather than of title that chiefly affects the consumer, from the practical, every-day standpoint; and on the theoretical side it is the operation test also that brings out in strongest light the merits, and otherwise, of collective and of private industry.

The leasing of the Philadelphia gas plant is often referred to by those not in sympathy with any back-flow of the supposed "drift to socialism" as a "colossal steal." It would be surprising if it were labeled anything else; not because the charge is necessarily true, but because, to the average socialist mind under high tension, any other interpretation is unthinkable. Bribery may or may not have figured in the case. I do not know that the charges have ever been traced to the proof point; on the other hand, nobody would be amazed if the lines running to that point should some time be uncovered. Perhaps they are there, but impossible now to identify. It may be that the interests back of the gas lease descended upon a body of innocent and unsuspecting public officials, stealthily undermined their virtue, and left them to bewail their too-confiding trustfulness (or else that they did not ask for more!). It is just possible on the other hand that when it became known that the lease was actually being sought, it occurred to these same public officials to get into a receptive mood, not convinced but convincible, and stand loyally for the Pennsylvania idea of political ethics that what is worth having is worth paying everybody for. Perhaps they "stood pat" until the revenue demanded at least equaled the difference between conscience and cupidity.

If the terms of the lease were favorable to the city's interests, it is reasonable to assume that any valuable inducements to the political powers were a forced tribute without which even an acknowledged public benefit would have been blocked. To say this is not by any means to justify the paying of such tribute, if paid it was. It is simply to state the alternative which has for years and upon occasions presented itself in practically every important city hall and state capitol and with such varying and complicated balancings of the ethics of ends and means as to deceive, sometimes, the very elect.

In the Philadelphia gas-plant case, three things at least may be safely assumed. If the councilmen were bought, either they expressly offered themselves for sale when a customer loomed in sight, or else proved themselves genially open to persuasion. Second, if the interests back of the lease either offered inducements or submitted to extortion, it was for the sake of the gains in sight through the privilege sought, and not to carry out

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any impulse of civic philanthropy whatever. Third, the Philadelphia public may, if it chooses, assume both the politicians and the corporation to have been rascals throughout the deal, and then decide the practical question at issue on the basis of which group, the political or the corporate, public management or private, has the better record to show in respect to public service rendered.

The gas service in Philadelphia dates from 1836. It was begun under a curious arrangement whereby the funds for the plant were subscribed by private individuals, but the works managed by a board of twelve trustees, chosen by the city councils. In 1841 the stockholders were given bonds in exchange for their stock, and thereafter the trustees claimed the right to continue in office until all the bonds issued in behalf of the gas-works were paid off. This pretension was held good against several attempts to oust the board, and the extraordinary régime lasted forty-nine years, or until the last of the bonds for which the trustees held the sinking fund expired, in 1885. During the late seventies and early eighties the jobbery, waste and mismanagement under this system became so scandalous that public-spirited citizens, notably the well-remembered "Committee of One Hundred," dared the power of the gas ring and fearlessly exposed its shameful record. It was this ring that Professor Bryce says controlled no less than twenty thousand votes, and used them most effectively to prolong its corrupt reign.

UNITED GAS IMPROVEMENT COMPANY BUILDING
Corner of Broad and Arch Streets, Philadelphia

That was a phase of municipal absolutism. In 1887 the management of the plant passed to the department of public works, and there remained for a decade. The price of gas per one thousand feet was held at $1.50 until January, 1894, when it was reduced to $1.00. But a radical step of that kind, most commendable in itself, clearly needed something far more efficient than municipal management to carry through successfully. And this was a particularly bad case of municipal mismanagement. Why should the "machine" look upon such an annex as a purely business enterprise? Absurd! It was a political asset, acquired by inheritance, fulfilling its highest mission only when worked as a sort of free dispensary of political patronage. All this was notorious, and the results equally so. The gas supplied was miserable in quality and at no time equal to the demand. Whenever the attempt was made, after spurts of popular indignation, to raise the pressure through the worn-out, small-bore mains, the excess leaked away before the anxious consumers ever dreamed it had started. The plant was allowed to run down beyond the possibility of effective repairs; the city would not vote sufficient money for extensions, neither would it go in debt for the millions needed to provide a new equipment.

All this and much beside was threshed out in the agitation which sprang up for leasing the works to a private corporation. And the lease won. Mr. Gustavus Myers, the Englishman whose castigation of Philadelphia as "The Most Corrupt City in the World" appeared a few

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A DWELLING HOUSE ATTACHED TO HOLDER STATION UNDER CITY MANAGEMENT

months ago in the London *National Review,* says that by this action "was given as a practical gift to a private company the absolute control of a public utility worth, as it undoubtedly will be made by means of extortionate rates and 'watered' stock, probably fifty millions, if indeed not more, during the thirty years of the lease." Mr. Myers might profitably have pondered Mr. Crothers' revival of the suggestion that "An author should have some little knowledge of the subject of which he treats." Then, even his zeal for municipal ownership would not have allowed him to stake one-half his case on the proposition that the lease amounts to a "gift," and the other half on that innocent little (or big) "undoubtedly." The suspicion grows that he never read the lease, and has never asked any questions about its practical working. If it is a case of private management supplanting public, iniquities must exist in the nature of the case. Of course. Why bother about facts?

What, then, were the terms of this "gift"? The city leased the gas-works for thirty years, or, to be exact, from December 1, 1897, to December 31, 1927. During that period the company is bound to expend at least $15,000,000 in betterments and extensions, and as much more as may be necessary to keep the plant thoroughly effective and adequate at all times. At the end of the term the city resumes possession and acquires, free and clear, the title and ownership of all these betterments and extensions; the entire property to be delivered back "in first-class order and condition." All street excavations for extensions of service or renewals are subject to approval by the department of public works. All gas and raw material of manufacture on hand at the date of the transfer were to be paid for by the company "at once" upon appraisement by the director of public works. Full reports are to be filed with the controller annually, showing in detail all expenditures made for betterments and extensions. The company is not to be "helped out" on any incidentals by the municipality; it must pay at regular rates for all water consumed, be responsible for all damages or injuries during its operation of the works, and keep up

THE SAME HOUSE UNDER PRIVATE MANAGEMENT

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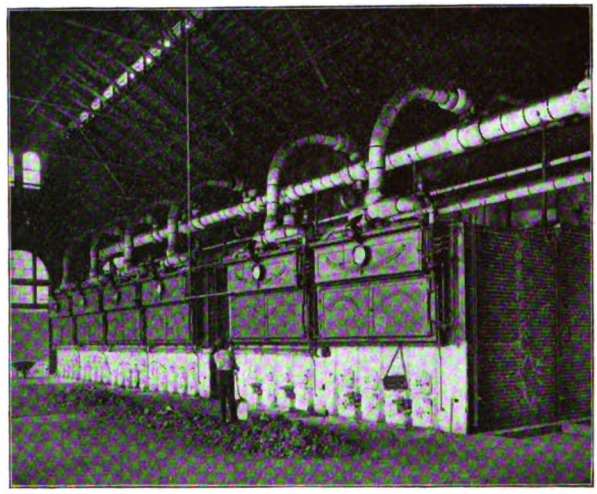
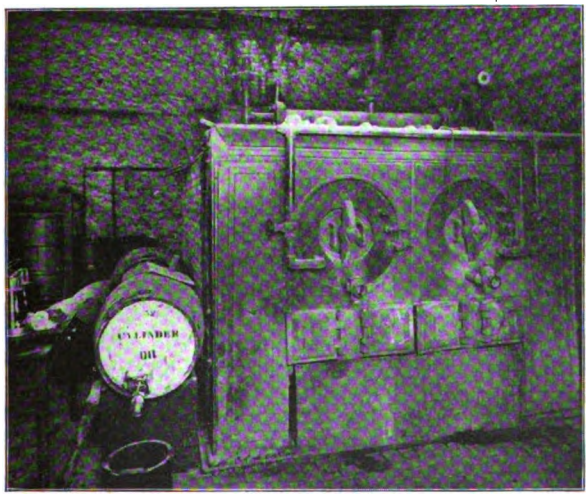
full normal insurance on the property.

All meters are subject to inspection by a special city official, and the quality of gas to be tested daily in the presence of this official, or by the official himself, who, also, may have any particular meter delivered to him for testing upon complaint of any customer. Gas must be of "not less than twenty-two candle-power, daily average, tested as above." After the second year of the lease, when presumably the new plant would be in operation, for every failure to make these tests and maintain the average candle-power named, the company shall forfeit to the city "a penalty of $500 for each day during which such failure continues." The company is required to furnish the city, free of charge, gas for lighting the streets, public squares and public buildings, and to increase the number of such free lights by three hundred each year when so required by ordinance. All service connections to such public lamps, as well as repairs to and daily care of same, including lighting and extinguishing, are at the company's expense.



ONE OF THE NEW BOILER ROOMS

The price of gas to private consumers is to be not more than $1.00 per one thousand feet, but the city councils have the right to reduce the charge to ninety cents at any time before January 1, 1908, or to eighty-five cents from that time until January 1, 1913, or to eighty cents from then until January 1, 1918, or to seventy-five cents from that date until the end of the lease, December 31, 1927. If the city elects not to reduce the rate to consumers to the full extent of these permitted limits, the excess allowed goes to the city treasury. For example, the rate has not yet been reduced below $1.00, but of every dollar collected, ten cents is paid over to the city treasury and constitutes the rental for the property. In addition, the company pays $10,000 annually toward the salaries and expenses of the city inspector of meters and his assistants.



A BOILER ROOM IN THE OLD PLANT

The company was required to give bond for $1,000,000 for the faithful carrying out of its obligations, and the city has the right to terminate the whole arrangement at the end of the first ten years, by making good to the company for the betterments made during that time. Or, the

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AN OLD VALVE HOUSE AT GERMANTOWN UNDER CITY MANAGEMENT

lease may be canceled and the city resume possession at any time if, after ten days' notice by the mayor that any of the terms of the lease are not being lived up to, the courts shall sustain such charges. Finally, nothing in the contract shall be construed to "authorize, permit or consent to the conduct of the gas business in the City of Philadelphia by the said United Gas Improvement Company or its assigns after the expiration of the lease."

This, then, was the "gift." Now let us see whether or not this piece of philanthropy has "paid." If it has, it would seem that Mr. Myers did not compass all the possibilities of public benevolence.

In the last four years of city management, during which the dollar rate on which subsequent comparisons are based was in effect, the aggregate receipts from the sale of gas to consumers amounted to $12,924,628.01. During the same four years the total of direct operating expenses was $11,326,551.30; salaries of gas auditors, clerks and employes in the various gas offices, $312,079.54; expense of operating street lamps, including salaries, wages, repairs, etc., $749,724.70; rentals of offices, etc., $32,896; these being the items of current expenses to the city which were assumed by the private company after the lease. The total for the four years foots up $12,421,251.54. These figures are taken from the annual reports of the city controller and of the bureau of gas. They show a net surplus or profit for the four years on current operating and managing account, of $503,376.47, or an average of $125,844.12 per year.

This, however, takes no account of the sums spent by the city on "betterments" of the plant (and of the machine that disbursed the funds!), a total during the four years of $1,461,992.11, or an average of $365,498.03 annually. After all these so-called betterments were made, the works were still in such a dilapidated and worn-out condition that the lease required the private company to spend $5,000,000 of the $15,000,000 within the first three years. Under such circumstances it would seem more proper to classify the $1,461,992.11 spent by the city as repairs, rather than betterments of the kind which are supposed to represent permanent investment. Whichever way this item is interpreted, the concrete fact is that the city treasury was drawn upon during the four years for current expenses and "betterments" or repairs, to an amount

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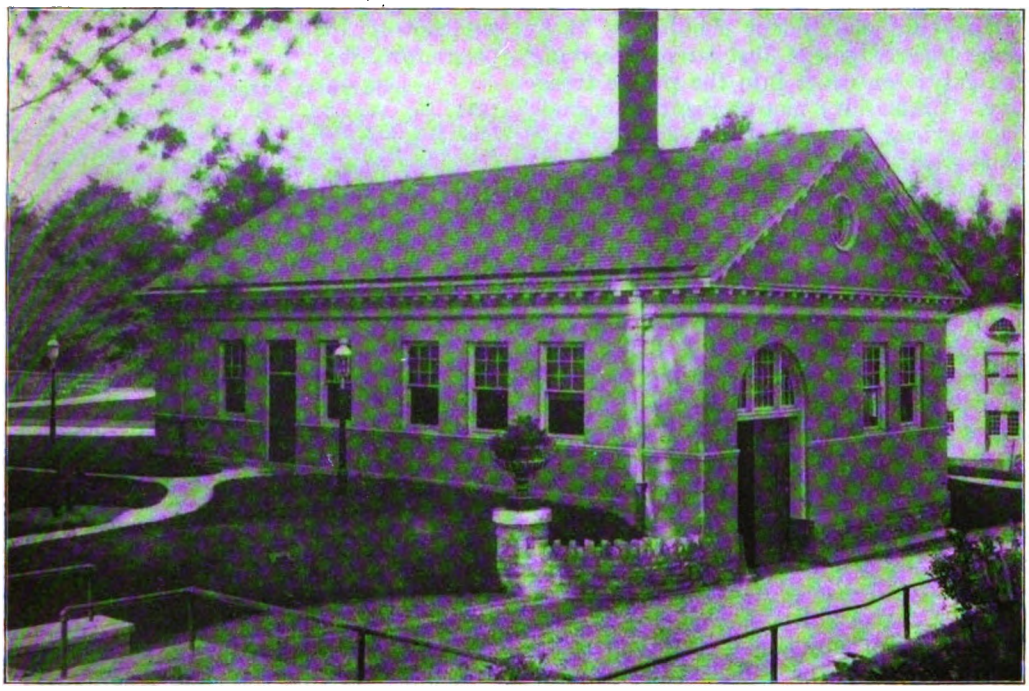

THE NEW GERMANTOWN VALVE HOUSE, UNITED GAS IMPROVEMENT CO. MANAGEMENT

exceeding the entire income from the sale of gas by $958,615.64, or an average excess of outgo of $239,653.91 for each year of the period.

So much for the financial results during the city's four years of "dollar gas." How has it fared since?

In the six years after the lease took effect (to the end of 1903), the cash payments by the company to the city under the system already explained amounted to $2,600,523.12, or an average of $433,420.52 per year. Here was an annual excess over the average surplus on current expense account in the four preceding years of $307,576.40. What about the betterments? Of the $15,000,000 to be spent by the company during the thirty years of the lease, it actually expended $9,608,199.50, or nearly two-thirds, during the first six years. Perhaps the fairest way of showing what the city is assured of, during the whole term of the lease, as compared with previous experience, is to distribute the guaranteed betterments over the whole period, which would mean a minimum of $500,000 per year from 1897 to 1928. These betterments, as already pointed out, are wholly at the company's expense and must be maintained in full efficiency and repair, and turned over to the city free and clear.

If to this $500,000 per year be added the $307,576.40 cash, which the city has received each year (average) over and above its own yearly profit on current operation account before the lease, the net gain per year to Philadelphia, as compared with the average for the four years preceding, is seen to have been $807,576.40. Still further, if we should count in the amounts the city spent on betterments, an item of outgo from which it is now relieved while getting the benefit and value of the betterments just the same, the average annual gain since the lease compared with the net results from 1894 to 1897 inclusive is swelled to $1,173,074.43. The increase of three hundred free lamps each year of course is a further gain to the city, over and above what it was supplying to itself before the lease; and the city has sold for about $500,000 one of the gas stations released to it when the new régime came in.

There must have been strings attached to the "gift."

How has the consumer fared under the new order? The price of gas remains the same, $1.00; it would be ninety cents

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if the city government should see fit to order the reduction instead of receiving the extra ten cents into the public treasury. Under city management thousands of service-pipe connections to private houses had become worn-out and were not renewed because, as the gas bureau report for 1896 states, "money has not been at hand for such work." From 1894 to 1897 inclusive only 7,204 renewals were made, or an average of 1,801 annually. In the six years after the lease 74,706 services, or an average of 12,451 per year, were renewed. Moreover, when the city was in charge, the consumer had to pay for service connection beyond a distance of sixteen feet; a charge was made also for the meter cock; the consumer had to hire a plumber to complete the installation beyond connecting the inlet of the meter, and to him also was charged any damage to the meter or connections from whatever cause. Under the present system the entire connection to and including the meter is at the expense of the company, which also bears the loss in case of damage to the outfit.

It was the custom of the city, in cases where a tenant vacated premises without paying his gas bill, to refuse gas supply to the new tenant until he should make good his predecessor's shortage; in other words, the city excused itself from the trouble of looking up individual delinquents by the easy scheme of charging the bills against the premises. This was one of the first practices to be abandoned under the new régime: each consumer now is responsible for his own bills only and receives the service whether the last tenant has paid up or not.

What of the meters? The testing stations were put in operation in 1899, and the city inspector was all ready for business. He reported for that year that, "We have not yet been required to make one examination at the request of a consumer." In 1900 the inspector examined three meters for consumers; in 1901, 22; in 1902, 23; in 1903, 81.

"The high quality of the gas supplied to the consumer has been maintained," testifies the report for 1901. What this quality was, as compared with the city-made gas, is told by the candle-power record. The testing stations of the private company were not opened until the summer of 1899, so that no report appears for 1898.

FOUR YEARS BEFORE THE LEASE.

1894	19.47 candle-power.
1895	19.04 candle-power.
1896	19.15 candle-power.
1897	19.09 candle-power.

FIVE YEARS AFTER THE LEASE.

1899 (5 mos.)	22.72 candle-power.
1900	22.85 candle-power.
1901	22.85 candle-power.
1902	23.00 candle-power.
1903	23.00 candle-power.

The tests were made by the city inspector, who states in his report for 1899: "The samples obtained for our work are always selected without previous notice to the gas company, so that the results secured represent the working quality of the gas."

The lessee of the Philadelphia gas plant is not a type of gas companies everywhere; would that it were, so far as service is concerned, at least. What is the secret of its efficiency? In large part, the rigid terms of the lease itself. Next, there is not much doubt that the very criticism and suspicion under which it began operations spurred it on to justify itself by furnishing as nearly as possible a model service. It has labored under the knowledge, also, that it might be ousted at the end of ten short years; very likely it will be in the field for a renewal at the end of the full term. The management has had sense enough to realize that its prospects at both these days of reckoning demand a record of good behavior, which thus becomes the best business policy.

And the larger significance of this is that it points the way for other municipalities to make it good business policy for public-service corporations to justify their position in like fashion. Set the terms, and then keep watch. Whether a city owns and leases its plant, or simply grants a franchise for the rendering of a given service, the crucial point is in fixing the desired conditions at the outset and retaining some sort of effective club in hand as a penalty for failure of the corporation to perform its duties. The Philadelphia experience shows how much more can be done in this direction than has ever been attempted in most of the cases of unsatisfactory service that are cited to-day as fit subjects for the municipal-ownership panacea.

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HOW A GREAT CITY AMUSES ITSELF

BY

JAMES WEBER LINN

AUTHOR OF "THE CHAMELEON," ETC.

THERE are as many ways of finding amusement as there are individuals, and naturally no discussion could take account of them all. But a large number of the forms of entertainment may fairly be called public—meaning not necessarily those provided at the public expense, but those enjoyed in company. Reading is, of course, as much of an amusement as theater-going, but one is a private, the other a public enjoyment. A man may disport himself through the medium of a genuflecting, dipping, bowing "health system," or he may skate in the park, and be as thoroughly amused by one as by the other. But a description of the amusements of a city would necessarily include the skating and omit the "system."

All these public amusements, again, are of two sorts, what may be called vicarious and participatory. Vicarious amusements are those which the public as a whole witnesses, but does not attempt to take part in. Such are the theatrical entertainments, the concerts, the races, the baseball and football games, the prize fights, and to a considerable extent the church services. Contrast these with skating, dining, golf, dancing. The charm of these latter lies wholly in the opportunity they offer to the individual for active personal participation. The tremendous growth in the interest in public amusement, of both sorts, but particularly perhaps of the vicarious, may be appreciated best by a simple comparison of the newspapers of twenty or thirty years ago with the newspapers of to-day. Ten times the old amount of space is now daily given up to it. One of the exercises assigned to a class in sociology in the

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THE BOWERY, CONEY ISLAND
Where in a glaring profusion of color and din of sound the crowds seek the excitement which they crave

University of Chicago is the tabulation of the number of columns allotted, in the principal papers of the country, to the different departments of news. Advertisements having been deducted, the news is grouped under various heads—criminal news, political news, social news, amusements, and so on. The per cent of space given to amusements never falls below ten, and it frequently rises as high as twenty-five. In fact, only one kind of news is given greater prominence—that of the markets and general commerce; with crime and politics amusement may fairly be said to hold its own.

What first strikes the attention, in examining any large city's methods of amusing itself, is the theater. What are called "legitimate" houses in Chicago number seventeen. Of these, eight are in the down-town district, at least seven out of the eight constantly presenting metropolitan plays. In the only theater of the sort on the North Side a very good stock company, made up largely, however, of "local talent," gives standard and less known plays in rapid alternation. The West Side boasts three more play houses, of the cheap but "legitimate" kind, as well as two Yiddish theaters, one in the heart of the Ghetto, the other and more prominent on Des Plaines, near Madison. A curious medley is the repertoire of the Glickman Stock Company which here treads the boards. "Hamlet" and "Leah the Forsaken," the "Merchant of Venice" and "Jacob and Esau," tragedy, mystery plays or vaudeville, one never knows what to expect. He can always be sure, however, of finding something which will interest him; of witnessing a performance which is taken seriously; and, in the case at least of the actor-manager, Ellis Glickman, of watching an actor of sincerity and force. The plays are, of course, entirely in the Yiddish dialect,

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and the audiences largely Jewish. On the South Side are yet other three theaters, two of which confine themselves almost entirely to the good old melodrama of our fathers, wherein the red shirt of the hero and his valorous virtue are equally obvious. One of these South Side theaters, however, has inaugurated a new policy, and has even been in the vanguard of the "Shakespearean revival" which has recently swept over the city. Indeed, the outlying theaters in a number of instances have set an admirable example in their apparently honest effort to consider not only the receipts at the box-office, but the quality of the plays. Chicago lacks both a German and a Chinese theater, and the lack of the former is a really great pity. German plays are, however, not infrequently presented on Sunday nights by some company generally from Milwaukee.

The audiences at the down-town theaters, especially in the matinées of Wednesday and Saturday, present a curious contrast in sex to those of the vaudeville houses. The women patronize the "legitimate," the men the vaudeville. Three large vaudeville theaters and a few smaller ones supply Chicago's wants; in the summer one roof-garden is constantly crowded. Throughout the long afternoon and evening, from two o'clock till ten, "turn" succeeds "turn"; at the end of each the curtain is lowered, boys thrust into racks huge cards bearing the name of the "artists" who are next to follow, the audience sit in chilly silence or manifest whooping approval accordingly as the turn is a "chaser" or a "headliner," and in an instant the performance goes on. "No waits" is the motto which has built up the vaudeville business. To observe the change in the kind of pabulum offered by these theaters is interesting. Gone are the Irishman and the slapstick, save as

"DREAMLAND," AT CONEY ISLAND
This pleasure resort of Greater New York is said to have cost $1,000,000

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they may be cunningly employed to drive forth those spectators who sit out their welcome; gone is almost all the coarseness and ugliness that formerly disfigured vaudeville; acrobats and jugglers of really marvelous skill, "special" feats of all kinds (such as that of the man who "loops the loop" on a bicycle), and, to a marked degree, the short, one-act play, have taken their place. As many as three of these little "sketches" are sometimes presented in one evening, nowadays. The honest but mediocre actor who never succumbed to the temptations of the vaudeville manager, preferring rather poverty and "the legit," smiles a sour, grim smile as he perceives this tendency. To him it signifies that the "craze" for vaudeville is waning. But he is wrong. It is only shifting a little.

"Dime museums," to give them their generic name, are less popular in Chicago than ten or fifteen years ago. The vaudeville theaters have drawn away their patrons. Yet two or three exist, pay a profit, and, on occasions, when some notorious figure in a criminal trial, for instance, consents to be exhibited, for a salary the tripled amount of which is always conspicuously posted beside him—or her—the curious spectators are very numerous. The great unwashed frequent the dime museums, and the student of social developments would do well to carry along actual as well as mental smelling salts when he attends them.

Nowhere in the country is the cultivation of the artistic sensibilities more seriously undertaken than in Chicago. Boston has reached a higher general level, and New York offers far wider opportunity and greater companionship in art; but neither is more intelligently desirous of the best, nor more bent upon getting it. The big Art Institute, whose collections, if not in any way notable, are at all events not in the least trashy, and whose frequent exhibitions are remarkably well patronized; the well-known orchestra, which Theodore Thomas directs, now in its eleventh season, for the permanent maintenance of which more than half a million dollars has been subscribed, in amounts from one dollar up to many thou-

A SPRING HOLIDAY IN WASHINGTON

The Easter egg-rolling in the White House grounds is made an occasion for a motley gathering of old and young, white and black, all of whom seem to enjoy themselves

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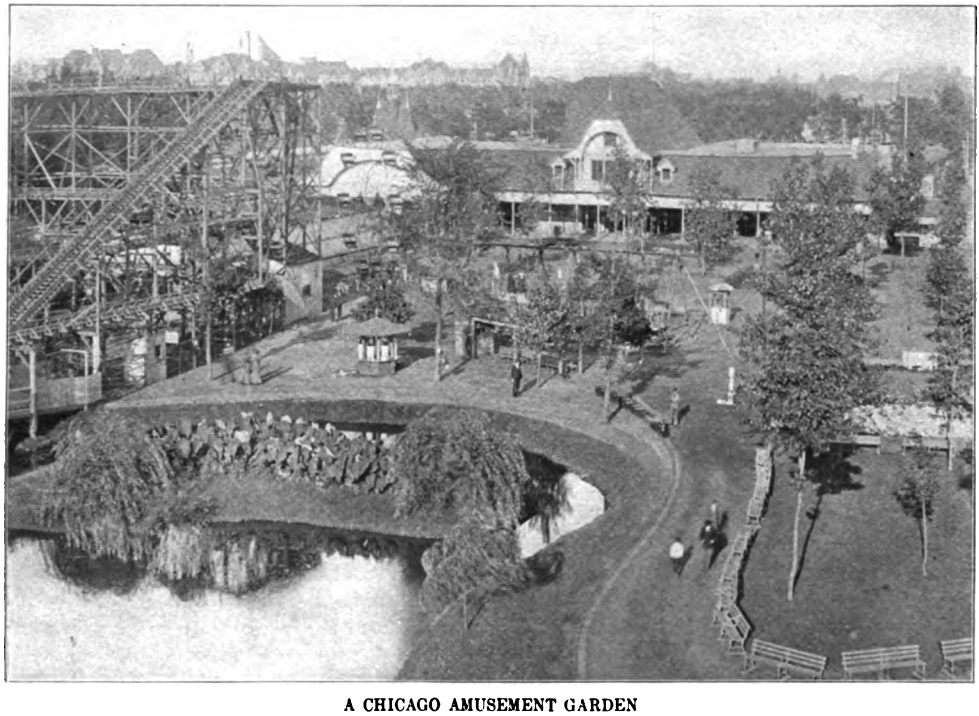
sands, in the last year—of these the Chicagoan is much prouder than of that cynosure of European visitors, the stockyards, though he admires, it is true, the business acumen and the energy which have made the stockyards the hugest enterprise of the sort in the world.

It is perhaps in connection with this phase of enjoyment that one should mention the very elaborate church services which are to be found in Chicago. Of the religious side this is not the place to speak Surely the greater number of church-goers are devotional. But there is, nevertheless, a large element which attends the churches to be entertained, shifting from denomination to denomination, as the charms of a particular choir, or a particular organist, or a particular preacher attract their wayward fancy. Evidence of the truth of this statement may be had any Sunday at the University of Chicago, whither the reputation of the "University preachers" who come there from all over the country, draws crowds which jam the entrances to suffocation, and would entirely thrust out the students if careful arrangements were not made to prevent that misfortune.

The two universities of the city, indeed, are no small factors in supplying amusement to Chicago's populace. Their baseball and track teams, it is true, gain little attention except from the students themselves. Americans do not care for the sight of men merely running and jumping; and as for baseball, such an infinitely better, more skilful exhibition of it is given by the two teams of the big professional leagues, one on the West Side, the other on the South, that the admirer of the sport never dreams of journeying to Hyde Park or Evanston to see the college nines.



A CHICAGO AMUSEMENT GARDEN
On a summer evening such places are crowded with thousands of pleasure-seekers

But football is a different matter. Football is a hand to hand struggle, in which one set of men pit their strength cleanly against that of another set; and such a struggle the great mass of the American public likes to watch. Ten years ago, in 1893, when football was new to the West, Chicago played Michigan, on a beautiful bright day, before fifteen hundred people, and the newspapers men-

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A "BIG GAME" AT THE
Thirty thousand
Copyright, 1904, by

tioned the game casually among the other sports of the day. Last Thanksgiving, on the same field, Chicago played Michigan again. A high wind drove a heavy snow swirling about the unsheltered stands, and progress along the streets was difficult; but twenty thousand spectators made their way to the game and cheerfully stamped their frozen feet for four hours, many of them, at length returning highly satisfied with their day's enjoyment. The newspapers gave up pages to a critical account of the strategy of the game. Of those twenty thousand people, surely not one-fifth had ever attended either institution, and not one-half had the slightest personal interest in the outcome; while of those who read the accounts, it is probable that a very small proportion could give the correct name of either university which was engaged.

Football, in short, like prize fighting, is purely vicarious. The actual contestants are there to display themselves and divert others, not to be amused. Innumerable teams, doubtless, spring up each fall among the small boys, and the Rovers frantically challenge all comers, the Diehards preferred, for the eighty-five-pound championship of Kenwood. But the real supporters of football are the spectators.

With baseball, in Chicago, this is not so true. The city is a straggling, loosely built, wide-spaced city, affording great opportunity for baseball practice on vacant lots. As a consequence, nowhere else in the country has "prairie baseball," as it is called, reached such a pitch of development. Literally hundreds of teams are organized every summer, with managers and paraphernalia complete, even to membership in a league; and the name of the nines whose members play regularly together, though under no

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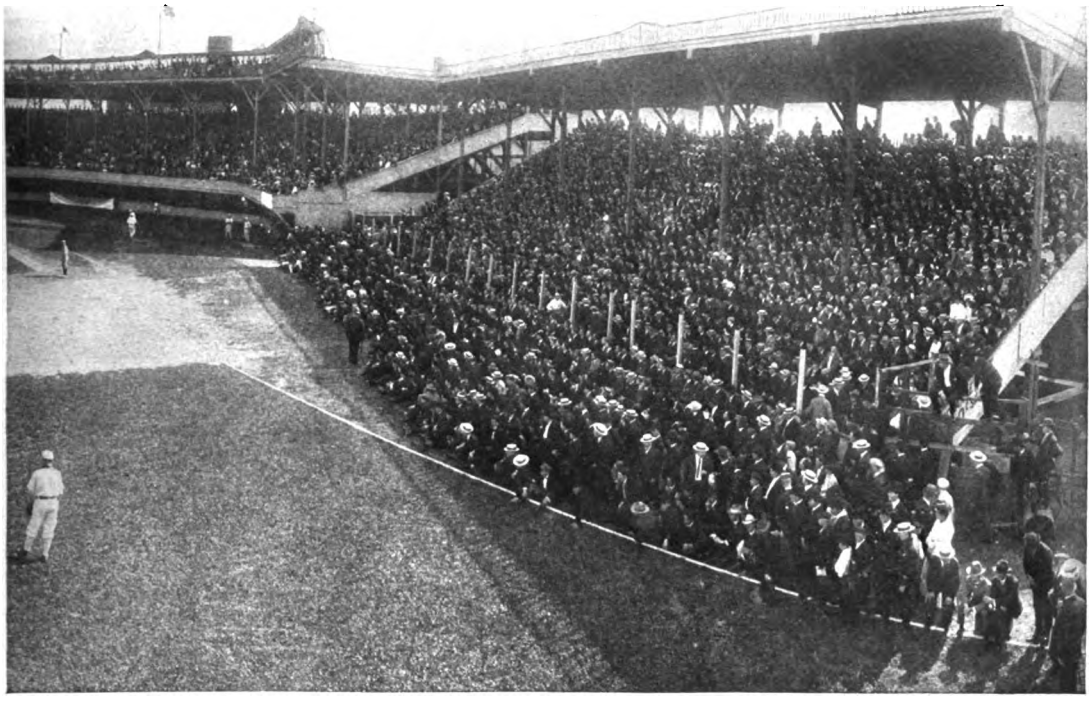

CHICAGO BALL GROUNDS
people present
George R. Lawrence

special caption, is legion. A journey on the elevated roads any pleasant summer day will take the traveler past so many games he will grow dizzy looking back at them. Long, troublous affairs they are, these prairie games, full of wrangling and loud talk, but they roll on to an end somehow, and nobody but the umpire regards the afternoon ill spent. The parks on all sides of the city recognize this interest in baseball by providing as many diamonds as the open space will cut up into. But there are never enough.

What interest there is in track athletics, too, is chiefly participatory. The Y. M. C. A. has done much here, and altogether for good, as indeed the Y. M. C. A. does wherever it steps in. There are three very strong associations, the Central, the West Side and the Ravenswood, which contest among themselves, and occasionally with outsiders like the teams of the universities or of the First Regiment, Illinois National Guard. The Athletic Club, unlike its fellows in New York, pays no attention to this branch of sport, except among its junior members. In the last two years the movement for the provision of public playgrounds, for the children of the less wealthy districts, has met with some success. The Hull House playground, on land owned by William Kent, a former alderman, is the oldest of these. Half a block in area, pounded quite bare of grass by the thousands of boyish and girlish feet that have danced about it; an open-air gymnasium in summer, a skating pond in winter, it is the most popular of all the popular activities of Hull House. At these playgrounds, last year, athletic teams were organized among the boys, and for the first time the regular "events" were regularly competed in. Some of the records, particularly in the short runs,

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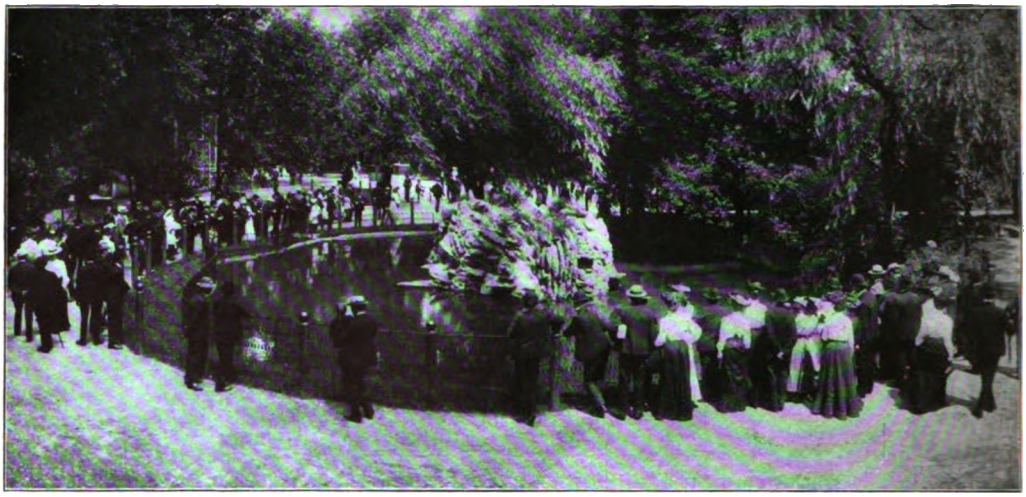
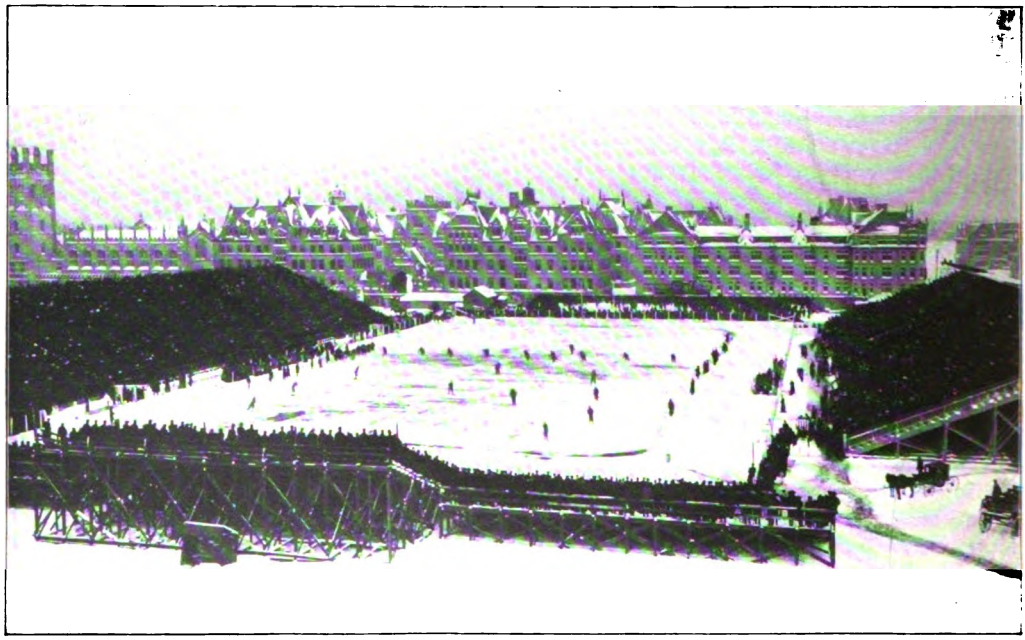


WATCHING THE SEA LIONS
In Lincoln Park, Chicago

compared favorably with similar records anywhere, taking into consideration the age of the participants.

If these vacant lots of the city are the playgrounds of the poor, the country clubs are the playgrounds of the rich. Among the other amazing developments of the last decade, the rise of the country club is not the least remarkable. Golf has done it all. The desire to get away, in moments of ease, from terrible brick and mortar, always existed in the heart of the Chicago business man, but he could give himself no reasonable excuse. Then came golf and solved his problem by quieting his conscience. Now, in the late afternoon, or all day Saturday and Sunday, he hies himself to Lake Forest or Wheaton



A THANKSGIVING DAY FOOTBALL GAME
On Marshall Field, University of Chicago

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or Glen View or Midlothian, has his game, and takes his rest. The actual interest in golf itself is waning, in Chicago. Some of the members even make no pretense, any more, of whacking solemnly round the links. Polo grounds, squash courts and bowling alleys are being provided; there is even trap shooting and riding to hounds. But what if golf loses its influence? It has done its work in establishing the country clubs, and these at least have come to stay. More than a score are now established within easy reach of the city, their accommodations suited to various lengths of purse, but their piazzas equally restful.

Open air! That is the cry of the dweller in cities. Open air, and room to swing a cat! And so we get our country clubs, our public playgrounds, and, infinitely more valuable than either, our parks. The parks of Chicago are illustrations of a government for the people. Surely nowhere else in America, and far less in Europe, is so much freedom permitted to the public in the parks. In summer, the rowing, the swimming, the baseball and the tennis—tennis courts fresh marked every day, and shifted at the first sign of coming bareness! Grass meant to be walked on! Flowers meant to be smelled of!—they even let you pick the lilacs in Washington Park toward the close of the season. Bicycle riding delights the multitude, and so the authorities construct, in Garfield Park, the best circular track in America; then bicycle riding fails in popularity and the track is promptly offered for sale, the space to be utilized in another manner. Golf attracts attention; before the general public is really aware of the new "fad," the South Park Board has provided a links, upon which thousands, since, have learned all they know of the game, and—what is unquestionably more important, as one is ready to believe when he sees the quality of golf played there—have passed many a golden delectable afternoon. Up and down the Midway, paved in a fashion which is a lesson to the city hall—or should be—pass hundreds and hundreds of vehicles, carriages, carts, automobiles, rich, poor, fast, slow, careless, fearful, and yet there is never the sign of an accident; and after the last has passed, the Midway lies cool, beautiful and clean, leaving the spectator to wonder who takes

THE SPEEDWAY, NEW YORK
A favorite resort on Sunday afternoons

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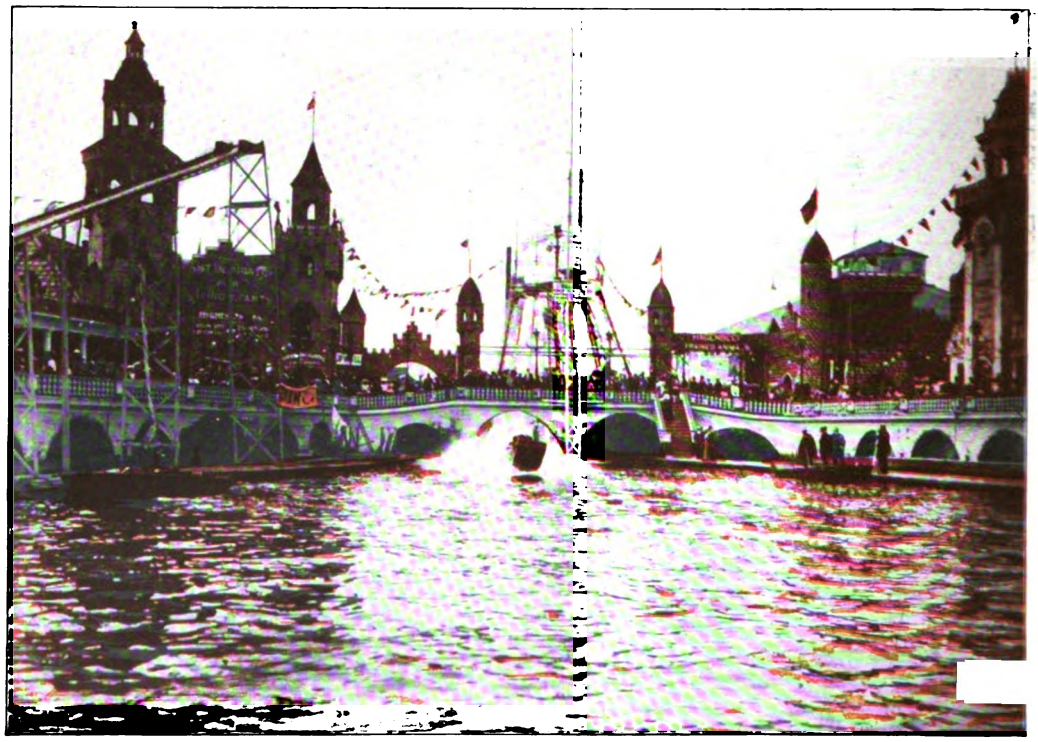
WHERE THE CHILDREN GO WADING



ONE OF THE MANY RESORTS NEAR GREATER NEW YORK

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care of it, and when. Last winter a new scheme was tried, in the building of a huge toboggan slide in Washington Park, extending for more than a quarter of a mile. What a godsend, in a city without hills! The toboggan was constantly crowded; nobody was treated officiously; and yet again, the winter passed without even one slight accident. Chicagoans have occasion to be thankful for their parks. Their only defect is the inadequacy of their acreage, and that defect is being vigorously urged.

other sensations as well. They cater very badly. If Chicago may boast of its parks, it must remain silent on the subject of its restaurants. There are two or three, it is true, which are at the same time expensive, clean and excellent in cooking and service. But the greater number are very bad. It is seldom possible, no matter at what price, to get a meal in a Chicago restaurant or hotel which really seems well served. It is not even easy to get good food cheap, with a minimum attention to service, as it is in New York, Bos-

A SWIMMING POOL IN ONE OF THE NEW CHICAGO PARKS
The Park Boards are spending large sums in equipping buildings for the small parks in the congested districts

But there are other forms of amusement than these. Theaters are all very well, skating, baseball and tobogganing are desirable, but what the American citizen likes to do, also, is simply to loaf in good company. He wants to see, and in some cases to be seen. It is this feeling, more than hunger, which takes him to restaurants and summer gardens. Of course, there are hundreds of restaurants all over the city which depend for their patronage merely on customers with empty stomachs. But there are many others who cater to

ton or San Francisco. And "odd" restaurants, so to speak—quaint little, out-of-the-way, delicious, foreign spots, like Stevenson's old "Poodle-dog" or the "Sailor's Home" in San Francisco, or the dozens of similar places in New York —these are simply to seek. There were formerly two, a French and an Italian, which were really good; but the French has now degenerated and become very frowzy, and the Italian remains alone. Everybody who knows anything at all of the coast of Bohemia has eaten at Mama

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CONCERT HALLS ARE INCREASINGLY FAVORED BY THE CITY PEOPLE
This is one of the largest of these halls on a summer evening

Galli's. There, on Saturday nights, after you have helped yourself to all the courses, and smoked till the air is blue, your neighbor whom you never saw before and like enormously, volunteers to play upon the piano; her neighbor sings, and he gives an imitation of Pierpont Morgan eating spaghetti—realistic, very. Then you all put your hands upon each other's shoulders and march about the tables, singing "My Country 'tis of Thee" in voices which betray the accent of at least five different nationalities. It is all extremely simple, harmless and agreeable.

Of one other form of amusement it is necessary to speak—looking at the shop windows. The window display in Chicago is better than anywhere else except New York, and compares favorably even with that city's efforts. Chicago, it must not be forgotten, was the original home of the department store, and it is the department store which principally decorates its windows. About Christmas time the ingenuity and effectiveness of these windows is remarkable. An afternoon tea goes on here, with an exhibition of costumes *á ravir;* Santa Claus arrives upon a train, in which any little boy or girl is welcome to take a ride upon the circular track; yonder is a series of snowy, beautiful landscapes, showing Christmas day in various lands. And the "passers-by" refuse to pass, crowding up against the great panes, and tailing off in a long cue which blocks the path of the innumerable shoppers.

The shops, like the world at large, have merely made the discovery that people long for novelty and recreation. And nothing could be more sensible than the recognition. If the crowds have no windows to watch, they will go to the cheap museums, and get no good there. If the children have no skating, no tobogganing, no tennis or baseball in the parks, they will occupy the streets, and get no good there either. On the whole, the amusements of Chicago are not only more numerous, more complex than they were—they are also more sensible. Relaxation from work must come. If it comes not in the form of play, it will come in the forms of dulness or of crime.

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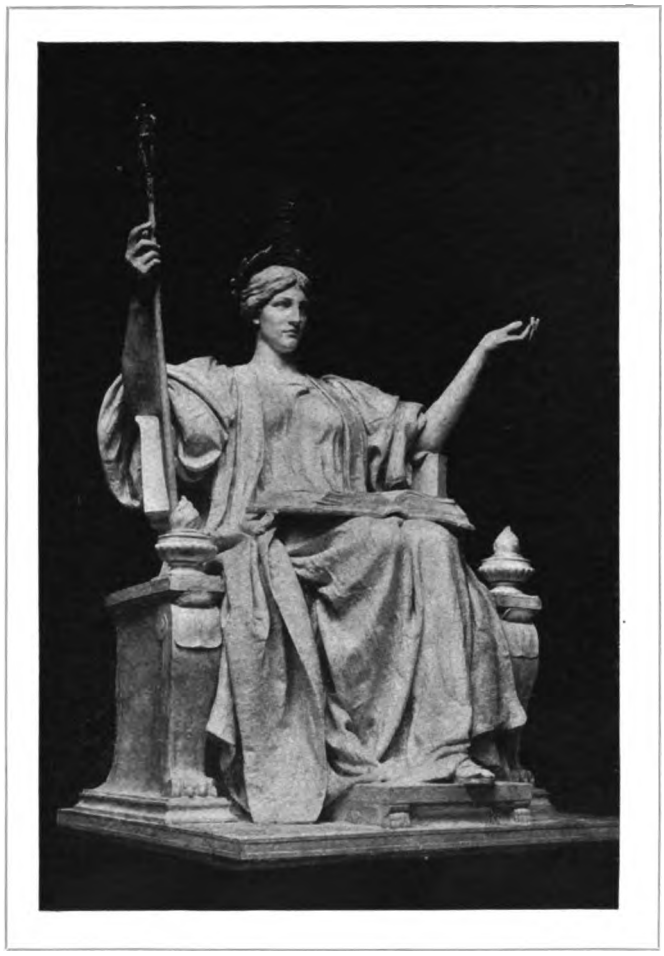

"ALMA MATER," BY DANIEL C. FRENCH

SCULPTURE AND THE MODERN SPIRIT

BY

HENRY CHARLES PAYNE

ALL good painting and sculpture is superficially more or less alike. Whatever unlikeness of mind there is in it, its procedure, its way of saying what the artist has to say, acknowledges certain common principles—as in painting, of color values and harmonies; in sculpture, of proportion, symmetry and self-containment of mass and line. To be sure the artist is allowing himself larger and larger license in his way of doing things, but there are some laws that he must keep if he is to have any standing in court, or to have his work approved by any representative body of his fellows.

So, most of the works that comprise the "Fine Arts" exhibit of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, however strongly the individual may have asserted himself in the general motive, conform largely to commonly accepted usage in respect to the terms employed. Though, looked at

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"SOPHOCLES," BY JOHN A. DONOGHUE

casually, the work may appear to be saying its own kind of thing just in its own kind of way, it really is not, for if it were it would never have been made a part of this exhibition.

In a work of sculpture it is much easier to get at the mind of the artist, at that which he thinks and is, and which the forms he uses are the sign of, than it is in a painting. The idea, released from all accidents of color and scene, shows in forms less diverting and more coördinate with itself. As it is this idea rather than any way or ways of showing it that is here my concern, I shall select my instances from this art, that by the nature of its terms brings it most clearly out. The relation here between form and content, is, however, and for the reason pointed out, a peculiarly close one. So, in considering the one we must take very closely into account the other.

To go well into the sculpture here as "will and idea" would be impossible in one brief paper. I shall not attempt to do it, but shall instance only some few works that seem to mark best our present mind about things.

It is because of something peculiarly local and immediate in the suggestion of clothes that sculpture having to do with what is constant to life rather than with the passing show of it, has, in the main, dispensed with them and allowed the body to show what was animating it without any disguise of coverings. Yet modern sculpture —it is a special distinction of it—has found a way to use clothes without allowing them to interfere with the expression of the figure itself, and even so that they become a very part of this expression.

I found nothing in the whole sculpture exhibit that seems more perfectly to have done this than a figure in the French section of the sculpture annex by A. Boucher, called "In the Field." This young French peasant woman rests upon the pronged implement of her labor in a way that rests us to look at, so just is the balance of the figure, so true to the suggested pressures and resistances are all its lines. There is enough that is single to a particular face and figure to give them an expression personal to themselves, yet all this is blent with and lost in some larger expressiveness; what is individual to this one is so charged with something that is common to many, that the figure is a very true symbol of life. Nor is there anything that is pitiable in the suggestion here, as in two works placed near it, and which might easily be made the texts of

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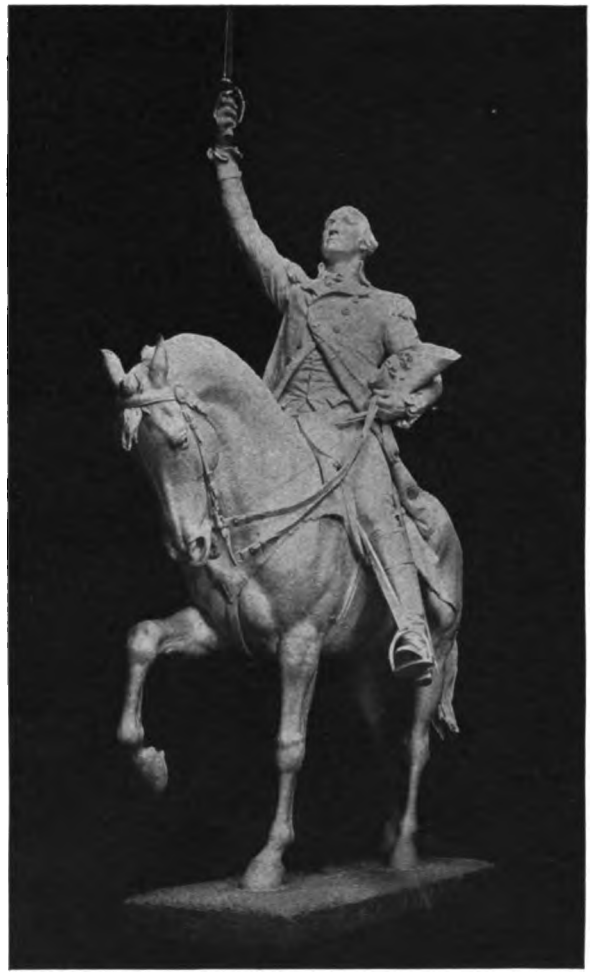
heart-rending discourse. It is not that this artist seems to have failed in sympathy with the conditions of the life that his subject is taken from. It is rather that he has selected such things of this life as lend themselves well to the uses of his art.

So we are not oppressed by any suggestion of the harsh or the bitter in what is here fixed. One touch of weariness in this rest would make it unrestful. Without this elastic strength of torso and limb we should be sorry for what this young woman has yet to do. Were the features without comeliness, or look of healthy fit young womanhood; were they stamped only with the marks of thoughtless toil, we should be reading into them something like what Mr. Markham read into "The man with the hoe." As it is, we have in all this balanced adjustment of line, in all this evident fitness of the subject for her part and place, something to give pleasure, and if there be texts here, they are to seek.



"WASHINGTON," BY DANIEL C. FRENCH

I have dwelt at some length upon this figure for the reason that it seems to me to represent a true ideal of compromise between the spirit of the old art and that of the new, between physical consciousness and another more embracing and profound, and which it is the special genius of modern sculpture to express. But not always, or even very often, is the expression of this larger consciousness combined with so much that delights the eye.

There is a work by P. Roger Blocke, not far from "In the Field," and one of the two to which I have already referred, which makes no compromise whatever between its spirit of to-day, and that incarnate in the beautiful forms of Greek art. It is called "The Apprentice." This figure satisfies our instinct for beauty as little perhaps as anything to be considered in this art can well do. To be sure, there is in it a certain physical containment, a something that gives a degree of sculpturesque quality to its "things that are"; but it is the pity of them that we feel, and nothing more. Though larger than its incident, and in this sense ideal, the figure's appeal is exclusively to those sympathies that go out to the unfit, and it gives us no pleasure at all.

This figure is very illustrative of a tendency in our art, for nothing is more characteristic of it than its readiness to accept for its uses the most joyless and oppressive of the things that are. Yet there is a certain passionate sympathy with the life that is figured that gives to the work a vital quality that goes far to

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redeem its ugliness. It is witnessed to in every line of the drawn face and emaciated figure bankrupt of all youth's grace and elastic strength, in the overtaxed look of the frame straining at the hammer too heavy for its strength. So we almost forgive it—almost, but not quite—for not having wrought into its hard lines of truth any little bit of the truth that charms. For art, even when it takes for its subject things hardest to be borne, may be gracious and true also. In fact, its truth comes better home to us so, for, finding its forms pleasant to contemplate, we do not turn away until it has had time to sink in.

This is proved by the more intimate appeal of a work by Henry Vidal, placed not far from "The Apprentice." It is called "Hagar and Ishmael," and it is as much by virtue of its beauty of design as by its pathos that it touches us so nearly and holds us so well. Here is the desolation of souls shelterless in life's deserts, fixed in forms not hard to look upon, and looking, we take to heart this truth, that only the art of accord can play commandingly upon heart strings. This emblem of human woe awakens full responses only because its truth of life has been worked into lines that play well together; because there has gone into it the soul of an artist, as well as the heart of a man.

"THE PURITAN," BY AUGUSTUS ST. GAUDENS

There is a work in this same room, and near those of which I have just spoken, that, while entirely lacking in the qualities that charm, is strangely compelling,

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and not by its towering mass alone. It is by Auguste Rodin, and is called "The Thinker." By its sheer power it overbears the objections of our estheticism, and rules our mood to its own mighty one. This is conceivably the figure of a man, but its forms are so empty of all that we can think of as belonging to ourselves; they are so lacking in all suggestion of any fruitage or bloom of life; they are so entirely those of force undifferentiated and elemental, that while dominated by it, we shrink appalled from a symbol that even thus tenuously connects our own with such a spirit as is shaped here. Whether or no this work is as great as some believe I can not say. At least it is greatly daring. That any one could have looked this spirit in the face until he had worked it out in an image convincing of it is a thing to marvel at.

The fearlessness of its departure from the charted courses of its art; the splendid audacity of an aim and procedure that denies every one of this art's most fondly cherished ideals, places emphasis upon a characteristic of our time, and this even more than its strange power is my reason for dwelling on it here.

But there is the emphasis of contrast as well, and so a word about a work whose spirit is a survival of one very different from ours. About twenty-three years ago, there came to one John A. Donoghue a vision that differed strangely from those that the mind commonly projects upon the background of its faiths, its longings or its fears. Its strangeness lay in this, that the shapes it took were quite distinct in all their style and suggestion from any of those around him. Mr. Donoghue—I knew him well at the time—was living and working in a room on the top floor of the old Ashland block, on the corner of Randolph and Clark streets, and the people that he met and the things that he saw in this noisy center of our metropolitan life, seem not to have troubled this dream of his at all, for the lines in which he worked it out are as still as though there were no fret or hurry in the life that his was a part of, as contained in their gladness as a thought before it comes out in action. Here, with no glimpse of the blue through his windows, for the smoke that rises from our altars, the "Sophocles" had birth in the shape of two feet of modeled clay. This is the youth leading the Greek chorus after the battle of Salamis, and it is truly marvelous that any one in such environment should have been able to think of youth and victory in lines like these.

It is quite in order with our very concrete way of thinking that we should have gotten into the way of epitomizing traits under the name and general style of some person who seems to us to have well embodied them. Hence the vogue of memorial sculpture. No one, I think, has so well succeeded as Augustus Saint Gaudens, in combining a sharply defined personality with a clear impression of the things that make the subject memorable. His "Farragut," his "Lincoln," his "Logan," while they give good expression to those things that we remember these men for, are also wonderfully convincing of the particular accidents of bone, flesh, tissue and costume that, in looking at them, we should have been chiefly conscious of. In "The Puritan" —the only example of this artist's work shown here—we find the same blend of traits with the characteristics that, when well defined, make a figure impress us as a likeness; nor is there a work in the whole exhibition that seems more closely to unite the character it fixes with the idea of a single personality. A whole composite of class traits is summed up in lines that give sharp, individual accent to them, and without weakening the type. The artist, as it was his right to do, seems to have done full justice to the harsher side of this character. Perhaps he meant in this to enter art's protest against the notion that fathers all joy of life upon the devil. Yet, in spite of the sour protestantism of all about him, from leather shoestrings to featherless, straight-brimmed, shovel hat, he makes our republic plausible.

So, too, does Mr. Daniel Chester French's "Washington," but in spite of its military trappings, in a far less militant way. It is the distinction of this work that, with all of its circumstance of war, it has more the look of a savior than of a destroyer, and suggests the sacred issues of this strife rather than the strife itself. I can not help comparing it with Saint Gauden's "Logan," and not invidiously to that masterpiece which, as

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an embodiment of its quite different ideal, is beyond praise. But it is something else and more than his fighter's courage that we remember Washington for, and somehow there has been worked into the more militant lines of this man and horse, a clear suggestion of these things. Thus the great soldier is clothed with the dignity and grandeur of his cause, and we think not of things of the sword, but rather of the ideals for which it was drawn.

Mr. Lorado Taft a little crowded the capacity of his art when he sought to work so purely spiritual a consciousness as "The Solitude of the Soul" into its substantial imagery. Yet, looking at this symbol as it was shown in the pages of this magazine two months ago, we find ourselves recalling some most intimate experiences. There was a friend whose thought and sympathy had gone with us until we had thought that we were one; and then one day we found that our most cherished conviction, our dearest faith was ours alone. Or perhaps this sense of things unshared has struck like a chill to the heart of our best content, and we have realized that, even when hands and eyes hold ours, something in the soul must go its own lone way.

Looked at narrowly, the figures that compose this group seem to lack something of that impersonal character that would correspond with the very abstract notion they are made to serve. While in pose and gesture they suggest it well, they appear to conform too closely to individual accidents of shape quite to release their ideal. Perhaps, however, they but acknowledge in this the necessary limitation of this art when seeking to give terms to so purely spiritual a concept. The purpose in this work is characteristically modern, and distinguishes it well from the art which, aiming chiefly to delight, did not search out the things of the spirit very deeply, or seek to give form to its profounder consciousness.

It has not been my purpose in this paper to mark any preferences I may privately have, or to make comparisons as between good, better and best. In other words, this is not an art criticism, but an attempt to indicate as I may within these limits, the relation of sculpture, as exampled in the St. Louis Fine Arts Exhibit, to the life and thought that it reflects. There are many other works shown here that would perhaps as well have lent themselves to my present purpose, and that by reason of their intrinsic excellence as well should be included in any review that aimed to mark what was best in the work shown. Mr. French's "Alma Mater," Mr. Paul Bartlett's "Michael Angelo," Mr. Karl Bitter's relief that so well fixes the spirit of the event here celebrated, Mr. Herman MacNeil's "Sun Vow," and Mr. Karl Reuter's "Paradise Lost," might each fill out an article, and without reading anything into their lines beyond their own suggestion. But these, as well as the rest, must be allowed to tell their own story in their own way, which perhaps, after all, is the best.

MAKING LIEUTENANTS OF INDUSTRY

BY

WILLIAM H. TOLMAN

DIRECTOR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SERVICE

"IT'S all very well to talk about your captains of industry, but how about the lieutenants?" remarked a young man desirous of informing himself concerning the present trend of commercial life. Asking him what he meant by the lieutenants, he continued:

"In the first place, where I work I am a lieutenant. I sweat and hustle to bring in custom, but the captains, the fellows at the top, they get the profits, and it's big money, too. For fifteen years I have been with this concern; I have built up my department, which has been one of the best paying branches. Every once in awhile I get discouraged when I think that I haven't the slightest equity in the business; if I didn't keep up my end of the line, if I failed to bring in the business, I would be dropped to-morrow.

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Now I don't think that's a fair deal after all that I have done for the firm."

"Don't they appreciate what you have done by raising your salary?" I asked.

"They don't do it of their own accord," he replied. "What I get I have to fight for. This last year I told them I must have an advance of $2,500, a sum which was a modest estimate of the increased business which I know I have actually brought to the house. They admitted my claims, but compromised, in their favor, of course, for a raise of $1,500. It's fight, fight all the time for what's coming to you. My firm are always very pleasant and smiling about it, but things don't come my way. It's lucky for me that I'm not married, for now I am independent. Do you know that several times they have said to me if I'd get married they would raise my salary? Yes, for the first year; then I would be at their mercy after that."

"Well, what are you going to do about it?" I asked the speaker, a young man about thirty, who, as he said, had gone into this business at $4 a week fifteen years ago and to-day has a salary of $7,500.

"In the first place," he said, "I am going to make a very careful study of the trend of modern commercial life; I want to know what great changes are taking place and the reasons. In that way I can put myself in line with the spirit of the age; then I shall be ready for whatever comes, instead of waking up some fine morning to find myself high and dry. I have come to you as the director of the American Institute of Social Service for suggestions for a course of study on this general topic as it has shaped itself up in my mind. I am familiar with the business methods of to-day, for I am right in the midst of them, but what I now want is an impressionist view of the entire subject of modern commercialism."

"What you desire, then," I said, "is a selected list of the best available literature, so that you can study for yourself the trend of modern business; its international character; technical training; the movements toward combinations and syndicates; the same general facts concerning labor, and the newer indications of a desire on the part of some employers to humanize their business, that is what we call industrial betterment."

WORKMEN'S COTTAGES AT CADBURY'S FACTORY

"Just the thing," he answered to my inquiry if I had diagnosed his trouble correctly. "Can the institute do this for me?"

"Yes," I told him. "And in addition, any time that you come to our rooms we will indicate further references along any special line that you wish to follow up in detail."

Among the notable changes in business methods during the last twenty years, is the large aggregation of employes working for one man or for a single corporation. It is an industrial condition that naturally followed the organization of great capital into syndicates and trusts. With an industrial army of thousands of employes, it became necessary for the best administration and efficiency that they be grouped into subdivisions, in charge of responsible leaders, in order that this working machine should respond to the directing control of the commander-in-chief. In other words, the day has passed when the employer is able to individualize those who work for him; not knowing them by name or even by sight, the personal touch, the point of contact has been lost.

Within the last decade, an increasing number of employers are concerning themselves with something more than the material output of their factories and workshops; they are making provisions for the most improved sanitation of the places where the employes work; the

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rooms are made bright and airy; comfortable seats are provided; the walls are decorated in colors that are quiet and restful to the eye; educational classes are established for those who wish to perfect themselves in technical or useful knowledge; movements for recreation and social intercourse are promoted for additional enjoyment outside of the factory, and efforts are made to make the individual home a social and attractive center for the entire family.

"Ain't it nice," said a young girl who was comfortably cuddled up on sofa pillows gay with color and brightness, "we sing every noon now, and it is such fun!" Even as she was talking, her feet instinctively kept time to the music of the other girls.

"That's so; it is lovely," replied her companion. "I guess we girls who never had such things before know that."

This conversation took place at the noon hour in a Milwaukee paint factory, an establishment which does not convey the idea of sofa pillows, music and happiness. For a long time the proprietor was revolving some plan for making the noon hour more comfortable and sociable for his employes. A cold, unattractive luncheon from a pail or basket, eaten at the machine or workbench, gives the worker but little cheer and inspiration for his afternoon duties. Fortunately, the head of the business acquired some much-needed additional floor space, a part of which he at once converted into separate lunch and rest rooms for the men and women. Then too, these quarters are sufficiently distant from the mixing and packing rooms so as to be entirely free from any odor of paint. The men's room, also, is stocked with papers and magazines. For those who do not care to play games or read after dinner, smoking is allowed, but of course it is strictly prohibited at any other time and place in the factory.

The great variety of efforts which are now being made to improve the conditions of the employed have for their object the promotion of better relations between the capitalist and the laborer, in other words, industrial betterment. All such endeavor must be free from paternalism, the individual manhood must be recognized, there must be no thought of charity in what is being done. Where industrial betterment has been most successful, the democratic principle has been most closely followed, in a recognition that there is an identity of interest and that each part is dependent on the other. This thought has been happily phrased by a large European employer, who has selected as the motto for his establishment, "The factory for all, all for the factory."

The owners of a series of department stores on the Pacific Coast have caught the glow of industrial betterment which they are working out in their San Francisco house, where they have begun such forms of it as can be worked out successfully in the initial stages. Their first effort was the provision of a small room where the girls could eat the luncheon which they brought from their homes. They responded to this so eagerly that the owners were led to add a gas range and a woman in charge, who began furnishing such food as could be prepared very easily. The variety of dishes was increased. On my visit to the dining-room, the following bill of fare was served: Bean soup, potato salad, boiled beef à la mode, spaghetti and tomatoes, baked pork and beans, ham sandwiches, cheese sandwiches; pies: apple, mince, strawberry, raspberry; coffee, tea, milk, cocoa and chocolate. The food is furnished at the cost of the raw material, at a uniform charge of three cents for each portion. The room was scrupulously clean and neat, well ventilated and cheerful. It was fitted up with small, round tables, and the whole service was inviting. Adjoining the dining-room was a reading-room, supplied with rocking-chairs, pictures, books and pamphlets, some of which were devoted to the fashions of the day, a class of literature sure to appeal to the feminine mind.

The firm also maintains a small circulating library of carefully selected books. They were induced to do this because they found, on making a study of the matter, that their employes were reading the most trashy, sensational, cheap literature. The library was started experimentally to see if their tastes could not be improved by the provision of healthful and inspiring books. The introduction of this library has produced a marked improvement in the conversation and the general

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demeanor of the girls. In this way it is made an educational feature, which is certainly productive of good, in the first instance to the employe, and secondly to the employer, because the customers are quick to note the ladylike bearing and the correct use of English. The services of a trained nurse are constantly at hand for any emergency case among the girls, and also for any customer who may need attention. The firm feels that they are not doing much, but are glad that they have made the start, for they know they are doing something to make the lives about them brighter and happier.

In many establishments, and, in fact, in many of the ordinary relations of every-day life, friction is generated and difficulties arise because there is no opportunity for explanations that will prevent misunderstandings or straighten them out when they may have arisen. Every attempt to lessen difficulties is distinct mutual benefit. An employer in Indianapolis, desirous of getting more closely in touch with his employes, issues a monthly periodical called *Factory News*. It is bright and breezy, and its high character is shown by the following inscription always carried on its title-page: "'It's Right' because it is our factory motto, and our motto is right in principle, precept and practice. It's right to accord employes that full measure of courtesy and respect which is expected from them, and the management that fails to see and appreciate this needs more light."

In order to reduce to a minimum the time required in obtaining books from the library of nearly seven hundred volumes, in charge of a competent official, the librarian makes frequent trips with a loaded truck through the factory, and issues books to those desiring them. Many of the books were contributed by the company, employes and friends; others were purchased with the money raised through entertainments given by employes. The influence of the literary and social club is felt by the entire force; the kindly feeling existing between the company and its employes, so noticeable to visiting strangers, is in no small degree promoted by this society. An aid committee visits the sick and looks after their necessities in time of illness.

VENTILATING DEVICES IN MR. CADBURY'S FACTORY

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In this same factory prizes are offered for ideas or suggestions that are of sufficient importance for actual use. Suggestion boxes, supplied with pencil, paper and envelopes, are placed at convenient points. The suggestion is placed in an envelope, addressed to the "Lookout Committee," sealed and delivered to the doorkeeper. No one, not even the foreman or manager, need be consulted. The receipt of suggestions is promptly acknowledged by a letter of thanks. Each Tuesday all suggestions received during the preceding week are considered and passed upon by the board of officers and managers while at lunch. Prizes are awarded twice a year, June and December, the occasion being of much interest and enjoyment, enlivened by a musical program and short talks. The boast of the management that men can work there without sacrificing their independence or dignity, and women only by maintaining their womanhood and ladylike reserve, is fully realized, and nowhere in this factory does there fall upon the ears of a lady, whether present or approaching, seen or unseen, improper language.

A large manufacturer in Pittsburg, wishing to give his staff opportunities for sociability, where they themselves might meet with their friends, set aside in a new factory building, the two upper stories for an auditorium, with a seating capacity of fifteen hundred. The room contains a stage for dramatics, concerts and other entertainments. The use of the hall, under certain restrictions, may be placed at the disposal of the citizens. A large factory building directly opposite contains a roof garden for the use of the employes at the noon hour.

The horses in this establishment are housed in a handsome brick and granite structure of fireproof construction, heated by steam, lighted by electricity, and supplied with foot baths, Russian baths and a hospital. The horses are cleaned by electric brushes. The watering trough in each stall is filled automatically with fresh water. In the summer season insects are excluded by screening all the windows and doors. An improved system of ventilation keeps the air pure, and an abundance of light streaming through the windows on all four sides makes the in-

A GUITAR CLUB OF AMERICAN FACTORY GIRLS

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THE WOMEN'S REST ROOM IN A PITTSBURG ESTABLISHMENT

terior cheerful and healthful. Thus a genuine altruistic spirit has provided for the horses as well as for the human workers. It will readily be seen that horses which are housed with this degree of care and comfort must be splendid animals. Such is indeed the case, and a pair of them have been set aside exclusively for the park carriage, as it is called, a wagonette which is placed at the disposal of the convalescent girls and women for an outing in the parks of Pittsburg, with which that city is so well supplied.

In conversation with the proprietor of one of the largest houses in Sacramento, I found that he considered his house as a kind of business university, where young men and women were taught higher and broader business principles, which they can put into hourly practice. It was his opinion that few, if any, harsh words had been uttered under his roof during the past year. Ordinarily, a word, a look, expressed by a superior, was sufficient to bring forth the best efforts of juniors and assistants.

His business philosophy was terse and to the point: "I want each one to feel as if the entire responsibility of the business is on his shoulders, and let each one of us, for our own good, for the good of the house and for the good of the commercial world, strive to maintain the highest standard for clean, honest, faithful business methods. Twenty-five years ago the notion prevailed in this community, as elsewhere, that it was impossible to carry on trade with strict integrity, and that he who tried to do so would go to the wall. This business is a living object lesson that this was a mistaken notion. No business in Sacramento has been more successful than this one, and no business in its every transaction has tried more faithfully to live up to the Golden Rule. The secret of its success, if there be a secret, is that it has won public trust and confidence by striving for truthful, frank and straightforward methods, and that it has earnestly tried to instil a like spirit into every one in its employ."

From this house have gone forth some of the most successful young business men on the coast. Meeting the proprietor afterward, they would tell him that they owed much of their success to the high business training received from him. The great merchants of the first half of this century will be recruited from the young men of to-day, and a store which inculcates such lofty principles and maintains such a high standard can not fail to exert a powerful influence for good in the business and commercial world.

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THE INDUSTRIAL CRISIS IN NEW ENGLAND

BY

A. A. BERLE

AUTHOR OF "THE TRANSFORMATION OF NEW ENGLAND"

WHEN the McKinley bill was under discussion, nobody dreamed that the author of that measure, as President of the United States would go out of life with the following words ringing in the ears of his countrymen: "We must not repose in fancied security that we can forever sell everything and buy little or nothing. If such a thing were possible, it would not be best for us or for those with whom we deal. We should take from our customers such of their products as we can use without harm to our industries and labor." And again, "The period of exclusiveness is past. The expansion of our trade and commerce is the pressing problem. Commercial wars are unprofitable. Reciprocity treaties are in harmony with the spirit of the times; measures of retaliation are not." The manufacturing primacy of New England was for many years one of the unquestioned facts of American industrial life. The ample supply of power in the shape of swift and abundant streams naturally conduced to such development. A homogeneous and naturally active population, with alert mental organization and with exceptional educational opportunities, added to the equipment by which this primacy was secured. Inventiveness and the undeveloped resources of the West and South brought still greater stimulus. A population which was peculiarly under the influence of religious ideals which tended to sobriety and steadiness at work created still another valuable economic asset. And perhaps best of all, the seaboard with the natural traditions of trade and the liberation which comes of extensive foreign commerce, tended to make trading, and hence manufacturing for that trade, as natural to the New Englander, almost, as that he should live and move and have his being. And under these conditions there was developed a remarkable epoch of American industrial history which sent the ships of New England all over the known world and brought into the harbors of Boston, Salem, New Bedford and the rest, the products of the whole world. Nor was this primacy ever threatened till sailing ships were supplanted by steam vessels and the iron industries of Pennsylvania put the whole country under an embargo which closed up the iron industries of New England. From that time the old-time manufacturing supremacy of New England has steadily diminished. The great middle West grew and developed and is no longer dependent upon New England factories in any absolute way. The South is beginning to open cotton factories of its own, and while this competition can not yet be called in any sense vital, yet it is as the cloud the size of a man's hand which betokens the coming storm. The hardware industries already acknowledge the power of middle western competition and there is hardly an industry in New England whose future in the large broad sense is not problematical.

On the agricultural side New England, when compared with the rest of the country, may almost be regarded as a minus quantity. It could not begin to produce anything like the foodstuffs or meat supply which are necessary to the existence of its population. In this respect it is absolutely dependent upon the West and tends each year to become more so. So that the situation is that of a highly or-

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ganized and thoroughly developed manufacturing section with almost no agricultural resources commensurate with its needs, with its markets in all directions gradually being clipped at home, with the seaboard rendered useless by the exclusive tariffs on the raw materials of production and its most productive industries hampered by conditions which make strikes and reductions and lockouts of one kind and another of increasing force and significance year by year.

The growing consciousness of these facts among the business classes ultimately began to make itself felt. To be sure the dominant party steadily suppressed any admissions in its platforms or through its official sponsors that any such conditions existed, but this was due to certain influences which will be indicated a little later on. Out of it all has come one of the strangest situations which the present writer has ever known in the matter of the public discussion of a vital economic and political issue. Within a year there has been an uprising which, if it had occurred anywhere but in New England, would have been styled revolutionary. If the influences which arose within the past fifteen months and have forced certain public declarations on the subject of reciprocal trade with Canada and other neighboring countries had been brought to bear on any political party in say, Illinois or Wisconsin or Minnesota, the effect upon the political life would have been electric. In New England, while progress has been made, the outcome is by no means certain.

Apprehensions of Industrial Decline

Before taking up, however, that portion of this narrative, it will be well just to glance back over the history of this agitation to show that the dangers which are now active and threatening were long foretold. There are New Englanders who will remember the operation of the reciprocity treaty with Canada which was abrogated in 1866, and the conviction is quite general now that the abrogation of that treaty was a most disastrous thing for New England's trade future in more ways than one. Various secretaries, from Blaine to Hay, have tried to negotiate treaties with Canada and Newfoundland, but the high tariff interests were powerful enough, especially in the United States Senate, to prevent their reaching any consummation, a conclusion which the New England representatives under the same influences assisted in bringing about. Mr. Vanderlip, formerly of the treasury department, now vice-president of the National City Bank of New York, pointed out the facts before the Commercial Club, of Boston, a year or more ago, and stated that New England's ultimate dependence must be upon foreign trade, a fact so obvious, both historically and practically, that one wonders that it was not seen before. A number of years ago Mr. Landers, of the great hardware firm of Landers, Frary & Clark, of New Britain, Connecticut, now unhappily deceased, urged a wider trade policy as needful for New England and tried to bring the Home Market Club of Massachusetts, the high-tariff organization of New England, to take some action, he being a vice-president and director of that organization. Unable to effect anything, and convinced that the club stood in the way of New England's industrial future, he resigned his office in the club. Mr. Henry M. Whitney, the present president of the Boston Chamber of Commerce, has been for many years urging some action by showing the proximity to New England of the coal fields of Nova Scotia, the efficiency of which was abundantly illustrated during the recent coal famine when for a single year the tariff was suspended. Thus voice after voice has arisen in the past calling attention to the fact that New England to survive industrially must have two things, food and fuel, and, in addition, must have her raw materials free. Only thus, it has been urged, could the productiveness of the region be maintained and markets opened into which these manufactured goods could naturally flow. If the markets of the West and South were gradually being supplied by industries on the spot, only two forms of outlet remained, Canada on the north and the foreign markets, the natural outlet for the manufactures of New England.

The development of the situation has been most interesting in the last twenty years. For example, in the twenty years between 1880 and 1900, the cotton mills of the South have increased their annual product from eighty-four million five hundred thousand pounds to seven hun-

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dred and seven million pounds. The number of factories has increased from 161 to 401. The interesting and striking thing about them is that they are said to be largely financed by New England capital and managed by New England men, thus showing conclusively that some at least of the New England cotton men see that unless New England manufacturing interests are liberated their end is certain. What is true of cotton is even more true when it comes to boots and shoes, one of the capital industries of Massachusetts and in which its supremacy is not yet in question. But when one watches the increasing development of the western shoe factories, notably those at St. Louis, there is here also a declining industry in sight. What is now taking place in the matter of cotton goods and boots and shoes has already taken place with reference to furniture and some other industries which have all but disappeared.

Agitation for Reciprocity

These facts and many more like them have led to agitation in New England which reached a climax two years ago under the championship of one of New England's leading manufacturers, Mr. Eugene N. Foss, of Boston. With others he caused to be introduced into the Massachusetts Legislature a resolution urging better trade relations with Canada and especially urging the national government to take measures to perfect treaties with the countries adjacent to New England which should open them to New England trade. It is worth while in this connection to state that Mr. Foss' determination to agitate this matter arose from the fact that a devastating fire swept over his extensive works in Jamaica Plain, Massachusetts, which raised the question as to whether he should rebuild there or move the entire plant, involving upward of a million dollars and employing many hundreds of men, bodily to Pittsburg to be near to the coal and iron which are needful to his business. Like the sturdy New England man that he is, he decided to rebuild in New England, but he also saw the problem so clearly that he determined to raise this whole question, and to him, more than to any single man, belongs the credit of the startling transformation of opinion in the last two years.

The resolution which was introduced was as follows:

Whereas, The Dominion of Canada is at the present time the largest foreign customer of the United States, England and Germany excepted, and is the largest in proportion to its population, and

Whereas, The full enforcement of the present tariff schedules of the United States is likely to bring about a curtailment of the present Canadian market, to the especial detriment of the manufacturers and merchants of Massachusetts, and

Whereas, A policy of international good-will and commercial exchange is more profitable and in every way more desirable than one of tariff reprisals; therefore, be it

Resolved, That the general court of Massachusetts regards the time as opportune for the revival of negotiations designed to bring about closer trade relations between the United States and the Dominion of Canada, and urges upon Congress that action to this end be taken at once, either by reconvening the Anglo-American joint high commission for the sole purpose of negotiating a reciprocity treaty with Canada, or by adopting such other method as Congress may deem best.

Resolved, That copies of these resolutions be sent by the secretary of the commonwealth to the presiding officers of both branches of Congress, and also to the Senators and Representatives in Congress from this commonwealth.

When this resolution made its appearance the high tariff party instantly set about to suppress it, the means employed being to label it a Democratic measure inspired by Democrats and having a political rather than an industrial or economic purpose. The hearings on the resolution were therefore robbed of their real interest and importance by the fact that the purpose was lost sight of by the obfuscation of the discussion. Last year the resolution was introduced again, and this time the hearings took on a new character, from the fact that considerable headway had been made, but more especially because a large number of Republican business men, persons of large influence and of long standing as Republicans, many of them being gentlemen who had been named again and again as vice-presidents of the state Republican conventions, took the floor and argued for it and for the liberation of New England from the death clasp of the Home Market Club clique of high-tariff advocates. The pretense that it was a purely political move then became impossible, and it became needful for the high-tariff advocates to deal with the thing itself and

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appear and defend their ideas or assail those of the liberty advocates. These hearings before the legislative committee had almost the character of the colonial protests against the stamp act. Men of all shades of opinion and occupation, representing every conceivable industry and all declaring themselves stanch and unimpeachable Republicans, appeared and with vehemence and energy declared that it was a life struggle for New England's very existence. In the midst of these hearings appeared Mr. Henry M. Whitney, recently chosen president of the Chamber of Commerce of Boston. For several days, in an exhaustive and masterly address, he presented the cause of New England business men, evidently making a great impression upon committee and hearers alike. The great committee-room was crowded to the uttermost. Then followed a scene the like of which could probably happen in no portion of America but New England. The leading exponent of the high-tariff side of the discussion was a Mr. William Whitman, of the Arlington Mills and "managing director," according to his own words, "of woolen mills aggregating over $6,000,000." After combating Mr. Whitney's position and facts, he assailed the Boston Chamber of Commerce itself. The present writer was there and took down the words. Mr. Whitney had been urging that it was the business men who demanded these things, not politicians. And he spoke, as did others, as a representative delegated to appear at the hearings by special vote of that body. Mr. Whitman expressed his contempt for the Boston Chamber of Commerce by denying its commercial importance or significance and ended by saying: "The Boston Chamber of Commerce! Why, the Boston Chamber of Commerce is nothing but a mere produce exchange!"

It is common to imagine that the most revolutionary and radical utterances concerning the economic status of America are made in the labor assemblies of the West. This is a mistake. For absolutely unparalleled insolence, coupled with consciousness of political power and defiance of commercial sentiment, this has probably never been matched in the land.

The response was quick, decisive and unmistakable. Meetings were held in Faneuil Hall, Boston, and in other large cities. The Chamber of Commerce immediately appointed a committee of one hundred to take up the matter, and within twelve months had secured the signatures of over sixty thousand Republican business men in favor of reciprocity with Canada and general liberation of trade relations with Canada and forced the adoption by the Republican state convention, October 7, of the following resolution:

> We also believe that still further measures should be taken toward negotiating reciprocity treaties with foreign countries, and especially with Canada and Newfoundland, upon such terms and conditions as will secure an enlargement of our foreign trade, for the common benefit of our people, wherever reciprocal arrangements can be effected consistently with the principles of protection and without injury to American agriculture, American labor or American industries, or when, as President Roosevelt said in his message of 1902, "the minimum of damage done may be disregarded for the sake of the maximum of good accomplished." In the language of the President's letter of acceptance, "We are on record as favoring arrangements for reciprocal trade relations with other countries, these arrangements to be on an equitable basis of benefit to both the contracting parties."

New England at Washington

One of the most curious and interesting of the phenomena of this whole question is the attitude of the representatives of New England at Washington with reference to what the united trade interests of New England regard as a question of life and death. If any other proofs were wanting of the decline of New England's commercial importance, it would be found in this fact simply thus stated. Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, sometimes called "manager of the United States" from his paramount influence in the shaping of tariff legislation in the United States, knows these facts probably as well as any man, but he also knows that the industries of New England are politically helpless from the great preponderance of the Republican party in New England, and therefore feels it safe to ignore the constant appeals made for relief. But the attitude of Massachusetts' own representatives, especially that of Senator Lodge, the senior Senator since Senator Hoar's death, is most surprising. On September 23, at the Essex County Fair, at Peabody, Massachusetts, a clergyman who was present, referring to the views

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of the Congressman of the district, who, by the way, is Senator Lodge's son-in-law and is supposed to reflect his view, declared them "bubbles" which he wished he had time to prick, so puerile did they seem to him. Thereupon Senator Lodge spoke on the subject of reciprocity, apparently from notes especially prepared for such an emergency. What followed was most interesting. The following were his words on the agricultural products of Massachusetts and their relative importance in the commonwealth:

> It is usually treated rather as a jest to speak of the agriculture of Massachusetts. Do you realize that in the forty-five states Massachusetts is fourteenth in the value of her agricultural products? The greatest single industry in this state, I believe, in value of factory product, is the boot and shoe industry, and the value of its factory product in the last United States census was $117,000,000. Do you realize that the value of the product of the farms of Massachusetts for the same year was $146,000,000?
>
> The secret is not hard to find. The reason for the increase in the value of the farms lies in their neighborhood to the factories. In the New England and Middle States, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin and Illinois—in that small portion of the territory of the United States, about fourteen per cent of our entire area—is half the population of the United States and seventy-seven per cent of the manufacturing industries; and the farm lands in that manufacturing area—the lands on the average throughout that region are worth twice as much as they are throughout all the vast region that lies outside, including the cotton fields of the South and the wheat and corn fields of the West.
>
> And the reason again is the neighborhood of the farm to the factory. Therefore, it is important, very important, to encourage the agriculture of Massachusetts. An industry whose annual product is worth $146,000,000 is an industry of great value to this state. It is one of the kind that we can not afford to neglect. Because we produce $1,000,000,000 worth of manufactured products, we must not overlook the $146,000,000 that the farmers produce.

How Senator Lodge Uses Figures

Now, in reading these paragraphs, it will be noted that Mr. Lodge refers not once but twice to the agricultural figures, and upon the basis of figures which he had to repeat twice, he based an argument which shows that there was no possibility of slip in the matter. He has accurate figures as to the boot and shoe industry, also, and in the comparison, he betrays no sign that he is at all aware of anything that is unusual or strange. But in this address Senator Lodge *used the figures relating to the agriculture of Michigan, not Massachusetts,* and apparently did not realize that he was giving Massachusetts an agricultural product of $100,000,000 more than she is entitled to! If the reader will look into the census of 1900 he will see in the arrangement of the figures how one hastily or carelessly glancing at the figures, might mistake the figures. Almost any one can make a mistake in quotation. But Senator Lodge betrays no consciousness of the fact that he is $100,000,000 out of the way in his calculation, and speaking within hearing distance, so to speak, of the great shoe industries of Lynn, he declared them smaller than the agricultural product by $29,000,000, when, as a matter of fact, they are larger by about $75,000,000! The actual figures of farm products of the latest state report, that of 1895, are $52,880,000, but the census which Senator Lodge thought he was quoting gives the figures as $42,298,000! And this is the argument to show how disastrous it would be to admit into New England the agricultural products of Canada.

This matter might be relegated to the region of mirth and absurdity were it not for the fact that the man who made this colossal blunder is the absolute political dictator of Massachusetts, and has for years now, with an iron hand, controlled, directed and suppressed according to his own personal caprice all manifestations and declarations of the dominant party in Massachusetts. And this fact of itself shows New England's commercial decline and loss of importance. If Massachusetts were a pivotal state or occasionally sent in a Democratic electoral vote, this could not be the case. Commercial decline and political impotence in this case react upon each other and both together have produced what can be described only as a crisis the result of which is awaited by thousands of the people of New England with anxiety and fear. It is not strange that this representative was willing in the United States Senate to strike a blow at the industries of his native state, these very shoe industries of which we have been speaking, by voting for an imposition of a twenty per cent tariff on hides, when the shoe industries had had for twenty years, free hides, as one of the great reasons for their advance and development.

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New England and the Railroads

There is another phase of the commercial future of New England which is beginning to receive the attention which it deserves, but concerning which the future not only appears dark but apparently hopeless. Active, growing and dominant commercial interests become so because they have means of communication and transportation which are in active sympathy and fellowship with them. This has long been one of the cardinal principles of commerce and its recognition led to the establishment of the Interstate Commerce Commission and other acts which were designed to give to all manufacturing interests fair access and use of the means of transportation. Now it is a well-known fact that New England money built many of the great railway systems of the land and much stock in them is still owned in New England. But while this is true, the second port of the land, Boston, has no railway facilities which are controlled within its borders and there remains now but a single great railway system which even retains the name of Boston in its title. The system doing the larger share of the business is called the New York, New Haven & Hartford. The Boston & Albany line is now merely a branch of the New York Central and is so styled. The Boston & Maine remains the only line having Boston represented in its title. This is in itself a matter of slight importance, but what it signifies is of the very greatest importance. Already there has begun interference with the use of Boston as a port of export, and cargoes which formerly came to Boston are beginning to be deflected to New York. And when protests are made they are heard and decided by those whose interests are not in Boston and New England, but in New York and elsewhere. The presidents of these two systems have lately spoken with reference to the trade policies as they are now affecting New England, and while President Tuttle, of the Boston & Maine, professes to be satisfied with the earnings and dividends of his road, a part of which is made possible by the use of old and decrepit rolling stock which would not be tolerated in western communities of equal wealth, President Mellen, of the New York, New Haven & Hartford, takes advanced ground. He insists that unless markets are opened and the factories of New England are given better opportunities their decline is inevitable, and adds that the uses and the dividends of his road must be reduced also. In the matter of transportation, the Boston Chamber of Commerce has been alarmed for a number of years past, and again and again committees have been appointed to see what could be done in the matter, but no result has been achieved. The simple truth about it is that the control of the roads is outside of New England, and where the interests of New England conflict with those of the controlling interests New England will be sacrificed as she has been sacrificed already in many cases. What also makes the case of the Boston & Maine somewhat different from the others is that this corporation has upon the states north of Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Maine, precisely such a grip as that which Governor La Follette is contending with in Wisconsin at the present moment, except that its political control of these states is more absolute, more tyrannical and more difficult to shake than is the case in the western state. In New Hampshire the political organization of the state is determined by the Boston & Maine road, as Senator Chandler often said, after he had lost its favor; and it is as relentless as any political oligarchy possibly can be. With industries that could freely enter the Canadian market and which would with extending productiveness compel, because able to compel, better facilities and possibly create their own transportation facilities, an absolutely new epoch of railway transportation for New England would result. And this is not the least of the factors which have to do with the present exigent situation.

In brief, New England industrially is at the turn of the tide. Nobody can tell whether there is to be a new advance movement or whether the high tariff advocates and their transportation allies are going to reduce the proudest commercial constituency that up to this moment America has seen, to the position of a satrapy, with the Pennsylvania Idea as the absolute monarch on the throne!

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HAVE WE A TRUE PORTRAIT OF CHRIST?

BY

FRANKLIN JOHNSON

PROFESSOR OF CHURCH HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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THE majority of the great painters and sculptors, in delineating Jesus, adhere to a certain type of features, and their representations, though differing, are united by a strong family resemblance. Whence do they derive this common element? Can we trace it back to the apostolic age, so that we may regard it as presenting to us, at least in a general way, Jesus as he appeared among men? Sir Wyke Bayliss, a distinguished painter, and president of the Royal Society of British Artists, answers my second question in the affirmative. He endeavors to support the answer by proofs, which he assembles in a fascinating little book entitled "Rex Regum." I propose here to review the chief positions of his argument.

So soon as the triumph of Christianity under Constantine made the Christian churches wealthy, they began to decorate their houses of worship with pictures in mosaic. The artist in mosaic uses bits of colored glass or stone or clay, instead of paint. The number of colors and tints at his command amounts, in some cases, to no less than thirty thousand, so that there is no effect which he can not produce. The picture in mosaic has the advantage of a certain sheen, a certain boldness and grandeur which the painter does not always secure. The art was costly, but that made no difference when the treasury of the Roman empire was open to the churches. They often made the most lavish use of mosaics, both in the East and the West, encrusting entire walls and ceilings with them. The art prevailed from the middle of the fourth to the middle of the eighth century. Indeed, it is still practiced, though painting has largely supplanted it. Several fine examples of its earlier forms exist in the ancient church buildings of Rome, and it is to these that Sir Wyke leads us at the opening of his argument.

FIG. 1. MOSAIC IN ST. PAUL'S WITHOUT THE WALLS

He starts with five Roman mosaics, which, he tells us, are to be dated variously from the sixth century to the fourth. They present essentially the same type of features. If the dates assigned to them are correct, then the type is carried back to the fourth century, so that it overlaps the catacomb period. But, in fact, the two which he places in the fourth century are from the fifth. One of them is in the so-called Baptistery of Constantine, and the other in the church of St. Paul's Without the Walls. But it is now known that Constantine did not build the baptistery which bears his name. We owe it to Pope Damasus, who ruled from A. D. 422 to 440. The mosaic in St. Paul's Without the Walls was executed by the order of Galla Placidia in 440 (Fig. 1). Now, burials in the catacombs had ceased a number of years before the

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FIG. 3. KUGLER'S COPY OF PORTRAIT IN CATACOMB OF S. CALLISTO

FIG. 4. HEAPHY'S COPY OF THE CALLISTINE PORTRAIT

earliest of these dates, so that we can not establish a connection between the mosaic representations of Jesus in the early churches of Rome and those found among the frescoes of the catacombs.

Moreover, the great majority of the archeologists who have studied this entire group of mosaics affirm that it presents a type entirely new, and hence not identical with anything found in the catacombs. As an example of their critical opinions, I may quote a few phrases from Mr. Walter Lowrie, concerning the mosaic in the church of SS. Cosma and Damiano (Fig. 2), one of the group selected by Sir Wyke Bayliss:

"This work shows the influence upon art of that new race, the Gothic barbarians of the North. The faces . . . . have an almost savage forcefulness. . . . The face of Christ presents a new type, which we have not hitherto seen. . . . The face is longer and older than usual, and has an expression which is severe without being harsh."

This Christ, beyond mid-life, severe, powerful and destitute of love and pity, is never found before the fifth century. The type affected the later artists of the Christian world, and became dominant in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, but it is entirely different from the earlier representations.

Having identified his type in these mosaics of the fifth century, Sir Wyke Bayliss carries it into the Roman catacombs and declares that he finds it among the wall-frescoes there, and that some instances of it are as early as the apostolic age.

The Roman catacombs were the burial

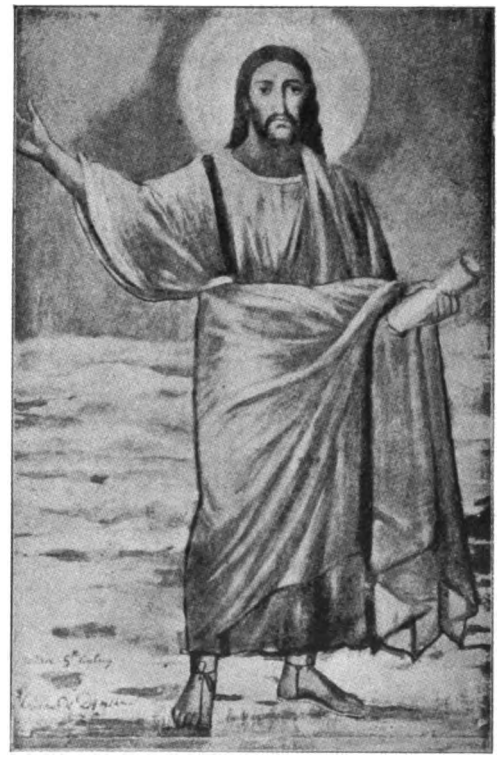

FIG. 2. MOSAIC IN THE BASILICA OF SS. COSMA AND DAMIANO

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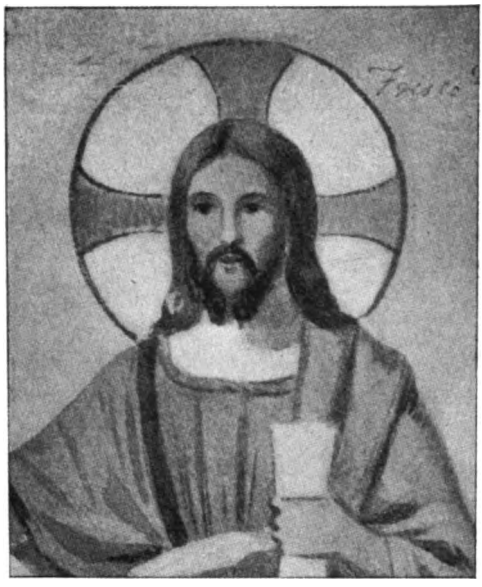

FIG. 6. FRESCO IN THE VATICAN MUSEUM

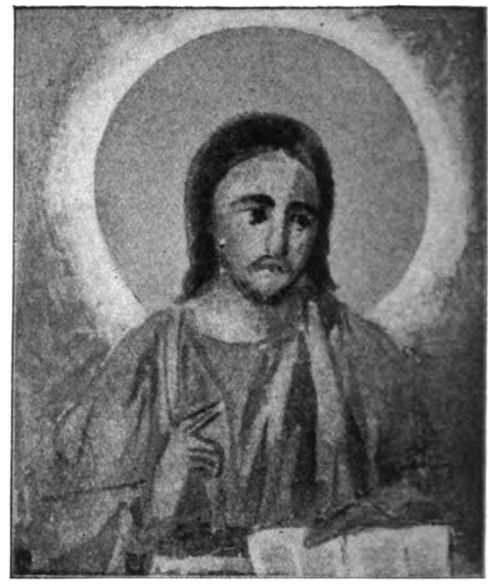

FIG. 7. FRESCO IN THE LATERAN MUSEUM

places of the Roman Christians during the second and third centuries, and perhaps during a part of the first. They consist of long galleries hewn out beneath the surface of the earth in the soft stone formed by the compacting of volcanic slag and ashes. On each side of a gallery were cut niches in which the bodies of the dead were laid. Each niche was closed with a marble slab bearing a name and some Christian symbol. Here and there the galleries were widened into chapels for the funeral services. These chapels were often decorated with frescoes, some of which are beautiful, and all of which are significant and interesting. It is not improbable that these subterranean cemeteries began to be constructed in A. D. 64, when the first Roman persecution broke out. They were multiplied during the entire period of pagan persecutions, for the Christian burial service was so different from the pagan that it would have marked those who attended it and have exposed them to death, if it had been performed in public. Burials in these secret places became less common when persecution ceased, about 311, and were entirely discontinued in 410. It is in these galleries and chapels that Sir Wyke Bayliss finds representations of Jesus which he thinks are of the same type with the mosaics of the fifth century and as early as the apostolic age. I shall now show that he is wrong in both these claims.

FIG. 5. FRESCO IN THE CATACOMBS OF SS. ACHILLI AND NEREO

That the type is utterly different, the reader will see at once by examining Figs. 1 and 2, which represent the mosaics, and then Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8, the examples adduced by Sir Wyke from the catacombs. Figs. 3 and 4 are reproductions of the same original by two different copyists, and are so dissimilar as to show that the original itself is faded out and quite uncertain, so that it may be interpreted according to the fancy of the observer. Fig. 4 is the copy given us by Sir

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Wyke Bayliss, and its sweet, sad and somewhat weak features are the exact antithesis of the powerful delineations of the mosaics of the fifth century. Figs. 5, 6, 7 and 8 are even weaker. In saying that the mosaics present a mighty but cold man, and the examples from the catacombs a weak and insignificant man, I can only appeal to the judgment of the reader.

Sir Wyke is wrong, not only as to the identity of the type, but also as to the reasons which induced him to assign an early origin to the catacomb frescoes on which he depends for evidence. With reference to Fig. 4, he argues from the absence of the nimbus. But the nimbus may be omitted from the head of Jesus in any age. It was usually omitted before Constantine, and frequently, though not usually, afterward. Michael Angelo omits it in his "Last Judgment." It is omitted from the Byzantine coins as often as it is employed on them. The archeologists with one voice deny that this picture is from the apostolic age, and make it centuries later.

Fig. 5 represents a fresco which Sir Wyke Bayliss declares "can not be anything else than a portrait." It is "not portraiture of the highest class, but of such a kind as a Roman artist could accomplish who had himself seen our Lord, and painted either from memory or from an authentic model." But if this is an authentic portrait, Fig. 4 can not be, for they are wide apart as the poles. It has not even the long hair of the other. It presents to us a man of narrow judgment, of limited attainments and of feeble public influence.

FIG. 8. FRESCO IN THE CATACOMBS OF SS. ACHILLI AND NEREO

Fig. 6, which Sir Wyke considers very early, is certainly late, for it has the nimbus enclosing a cross, and this is never found before the beginning of the fifth century.

These examples must suffice as proof that the arguments for an early dating break down in every case. All the catacomb frescoes adduced by Sir Wyke as of the apostolic age are, on the contrary, relatively late.

FIGS. 9 AND 10. GLASS PATERAE IN THE VATICAN MUSEUM

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Sir Wyke Bayliss appeals not only to the frescoes of the catacombs, but also to certain fragments of glass drinking cups found there. The bottom of the glass drinking cup in use among the Romans was often adorned with a small and crude picture in gold leaf, covered with a layer of glass and fused in the fire. The Christians chose religious subjects for their cups, so that when they drank they might be reminded of sacred things. The bottoms of many of these cups have been found in the catacombs, sticking fast in the plaster with which the marble slabs closing the niches were hermetically sealed. Have the bottoms been preserved because they were imbedded in the plaster, while the rest of the cups have perished because more exposed? Or did the Christians use in these places only the bottoms of cups already broken? It is probable that their purpose was to enable them to identify the graves of their relations quickly in the dim light of the lamps with which the galleries were illuminated. The bottom of a broken cup would serve to mark a grave quite as well as the entire cup, and perhaps better; for no two fragments would be alike, and the members of each family could easily recognize the peculiar shape of their own particular fragment. It is, therefore, thought probable by many archeologists that only the bottoms of the cups were placed in the catacombs to mark some of the graves.

FIG. 11. A GLASS RELIC FROM THE CATACOMBS

About three hundred and forty of these interesting relics are preserved in various museums. Of these Sir Wyke selects four which he thinks present the same features with the mosaics of the fifth century and come to us from the apostolic age. I represent three of these here. The two questions which we have asked with reference to the frescoes must be asked with reference to these decorations. Are the features identical with those of the mosaics? And are they from the apostolic age?

FIGS. 12 AND 13. THE SAME TYPE WITH AND WITHOUT THE FORELOCK

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The archeologists who have studied them are unanimous in giving a negative answer to both these questions. (Fig. 9.) The head of Jesus on the glass fragments is so small, so crudely executed, and so indistinct, that no one can find a definite type of portraiture in it. The earliest conjectural date given to any of these fragments by any archeologist known to me is that of De Rossi, who assigns some of them to the middle of the second century. (Fig. 10.) Sir Wyke constructs an argument out of the absence of the nimbus from the heads of Peter and Paul and other saints on some of these fragments. We have already seen that the absence or the presence of the nimbus proves nothing. Sir Wyke copies the head of Jesus from these fragments with a beard and with long hair. (Fig. 11.) The archeologists copy them with a smooth face and with short hair. In fact, they are so indefinite that they do not enable the student to tell whether the decorator intended to represent Jesus in the first or the second of these manners.

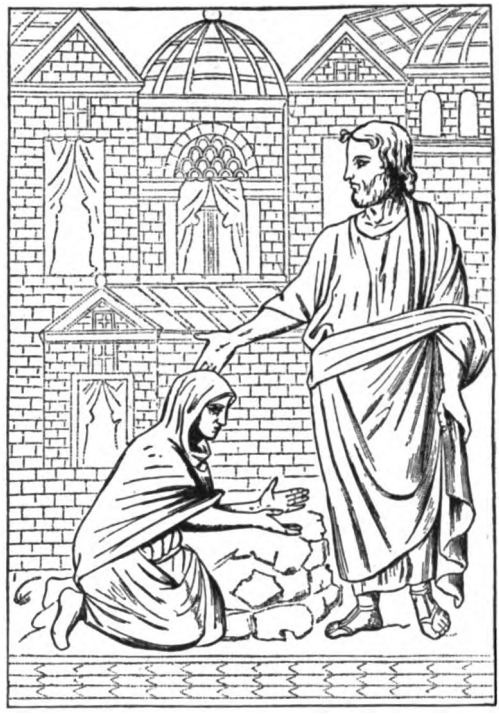

FIG. 14. AN EARLY EXAMPLE OF THE USE OF THE FORELOCK
From a Sarcophagus in the Lateran Museum

Thus far the induction of Sir Wyke Bayliss has been narrow, for it has dealt with but a few examples carefully selected from hundreds which early Christian art gives us; and, moreover, all the examples adduced thus far have been found in Rome, a single small island of the ancient Christian world. This defect Sir Wyke seeks to remedy by appealing to the art of the eastern church. The Jesus of the western church, he tells us, and the Jesus of the eastern church, are essentially the same. But if a portrait of Jesus has a slight forelock hanging upon the forehead from the middle parting of the hair, it belongs to the eastern church. If it has no forelock, it belongs to the western church. Now, as we have some representations without the forelock (Fig. 12) and some with it (Fig. 13), but all presenting essentially the same features, we have the testimony of both churches concerning the personal appearance of Jesus to justify the traditional portrait. Such is the argument. But the forelock is not the mark of an eastern picture of Jesus, for it occurs far more frequently in western art than in eastern. Jesus has not the forelock at Ravenna, though he is represented there in scores of instances by eastern artists. He does not have it on the Byzantine coins. He does not have it in the mosaics of Santa Sophia at Constantinople. The earliest instance of the forelock known to me (Fig. 14) is on a Roman sarcophagus which may be dated in the fourth century. Sir Wyke Bayliss does not succeed in his effort to secure the testimony of the eastern church to sustain the validity of his portrait. But in any case, if we should grant that the pictures with the forelock are of eastern origin, we should gain nothing, for they differ utterly from the mosaics of the fifth century, in which we find the type of many later representations, and with which Sir Wyke begins his argument.

What joy we should feel could we be assured that we looked upon the features of the Savior as some artist who knew him delineated them. The future may have such happiness in store for us. But I am sure that the discovery has not yet been made, and that we must wait in patience for the realization of our hopes.

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ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE YEAR

PROGRESS DURING 1904

American Art

THE most notable special exhibitions have been the portrait exhibition in New York, which opened in November (1903), and the Whistler exhibition in Boston, in February and March. Of the regular exhibitions the Philadelphia Academy was the most comprehensive and important. Minor exhibitions, in such cities as Toledo, Indianapolis and Detroit, are increasing in number, and it is noteworthy that Minnesota and some of the other western states have actually made appropriations for art exhibitions.

Of course, the exhibition of the St. Louis Fair overshadows all others, and no feature of it is more welcome than the high rank of the American paintings and sculpture, as compared with the foreign. In sculpture, the American section is obviously superior, and in painting it is, at least, not obviously inferior, and may claim superiority in such points as freshness of color and of apprehension. The profuse sculpture decoration of the grounds is chiefly the work of native sculptors, and signalizes our independence of foreign artists for such purposes. Chief among the sculptors are MacNeil, French, Taft, Borglum, Bitter, Potter, Nichaus, O'Connor, Ruckstuhl and Boyle. Several important groups and figures are by women who have studied in the Art Institute of Chicago: Miss Longman, Miss Bracken, Miss Yandell, Miss Scudder and Miss Wood.

Among the monuments erected are Fremiet's equestrian statue of Gen. J. E. Howard, at Baltimore; the Pingree monument, by R. Schwartz, at Detroit; the statue of "Alma Mater," at Columbia University, by D. C. French; the equestrian statue of Washington, a replica of the Paris statue, in Chicago, by French and Potter; the Burns monument at Denver, by the Scotch sculptor, W. Grant Stevenson, and the equestrian statue of Fitz John Porter, by J. E. Kelly, at Portsmouth, New Hampshire.

Honors at St. Louis have been conferred upon the following Chicago artists:

Lorado Taft, William Wendt, Henry S. Hubbell, Carl A. Buehr, Frederick W. Freer, O. D. Grover, Mrs. Eugene F. Glaman, John G. Johansen, Jules R. Mersfelder, James William Pattison, Mrs. Pauline Palmer, Svend Svendsen, John F. Stacy, John H. Vanderpoel, Frederic C. Bartlett, O. D. Grover, Martha S. Baker, Emma K. Hess, Mabel Packard.

A grand prize was conferred upon the Art Institute, for its school exhibition. Incidentally to the Fair, a great number of foreign artists and art educators have visited the country.

The fine Albright gallery, the new art museum of Buffalo, is nearly completed and ready for occupancy. The Boston museum has sent a commission abroad to study museum buildings. The necessary legal steps for removing the Field Columbian Museum in Chicago to the lake front (now Grant Park) have been completed, and the South Park Commissioners are levying a tax for the benefit of the Field Columbian Museum and the Art Institute.

Among the artists who have died during the year are J. H. Dolph, the animal painter, and Richard S. Greenough, the aged sculptor. W. M. R. FRENCH.

Astronomy

PROBABLY the most interesting astronomical event of the year 1904 is the final confirmation of the existence of a ninth satellite of Saturn, together with the determination of an approximate orbit for it. To Professor Wm. H. Pickering, of Harvard, belongs the credit of the discovery of this body, though he has never seen it. The new body—which has received the name Phoebe—has been seen with the Yerkes telescope only, in the hands of Professor Barnard.

The discovery of Phoebe and the rough determination of its orbit by a discussion of photographs of the vicinity of Saturn, is a striking illustration of scientific per-

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severance and resourcefulness. In 1888 Professor Pickering began the photographic quest; but his instrument was not sufficiently powerful. When the Bruce photographic telescope, which is the most powerful star camera in existence, was installed at Arequipa, Peru, the problem was taken up again at a particularly favorable time, in the year 1898. On four of the plates then taken an object was found which seemed to be in motion around Saturn, but very little could be learned about its orbit. In August, 1899, a few more exposures were made, but no images of the object sought appeared. In 1900 a fine series of negatives was obtained, but a careful examination of all the images within thirty minutes of Saturn gave no results in confirmation of the work of 1898, and Professor Pickering began to wonder whether he had not been deceived. But a further examination of the 1900 plates at greater distances from the image of Saturn led to the discovery of an object which appeared in a different place on each plate. From the positions on these plates an orbit was figured out for the new body.

In the spring of the present year several attempts were made to find the new satellite, but they were all failures; evidently it was not in the expected place. A renewed examination of the plates led to the discovery of a moving object which evidently accompanied Saturn, but which was on the wrong side of the planet. Could this be still another moon? Had the orbit of the one previously photographed suffered large perturbations by the attractions of other bodies? Finally it occurred to the discoverer to try to explain all the observations upon the hypothesis that Phoebe had a retrograde motion about Saturn. This supposition was found to agree with all the photographs taken in 1904, and several of those in previous years, but not to agree with others. However, Professor Pickering has published predictions of Phoebe's positions for the latter portion of 1904, and Professor Barnard's observations on August 6 and September 12 agree with the predictions as well as might be expected.

Phoebe is thought to be about two hundred miles in diameter. It occupies a year and a half in making one revolution about its primary, at an average distance of eight million miles.

HERBERT A. HOWE.

Charity

THE medieval charity favored the monastic institution and the military barrack; the modern methods of relief are dominated by the preference for family forms and spirit. The recent buildings are, so far as possible, placed in rural localities and are relatively small in extent, with a housefather or matron in charge. This is true of parental schools, industrial training establishments, juvenile reformatories, institutions for the insane and feeble-minded. Massachusetts is making experiments with the boarding of selected harmless insane persons in houses, as in Belgium and Scotland.

The recognition of preventable disease as a cause of dependence has stimulated the war upon tuberculosis, and recently upon pneumonia. Improvements in urban dwellings and extension of playgrounds and recreation have come to be regarded as factors in a policy of prevention. The rapid growth of the movement to establish juvenile courts, with probation officers, is closely connected with the discovery by charity workers that conditions in neighborhoods and families must be controlled in the interest of childhood.

The agencies and resources of charity are inadequate to relieve the distress caused by the disabling sickness, accidents, invalidism and old age of wage-workers. Hence the recent Scotch charity congress, the National Congress of Charities and Correction, the German, French and Italian authorities are all discussing schemes of voluntary and compulsory insurance of workingmen. The International Congress of Charity, which will meet in Milan in September, 1905, will discuss the subject. It is generally felt that dependence on charity, when it can be avoided by insurance, is degrading. The organization of self-help is a justice which is the highest form of philanthropy; and the government is the highest agency of justice and the only medium for insuring those who need it most, the low-paid, unskilled laborers.

Perhaps the most significant movement of the year 1904 was the simultaneous

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establishment in London, New York, Cambridge and Chicago, of schools for the professional education of workers in the field of philanthropy. Somewhat irregular and experimental efforts had already been put forth, but now quite ambitious programs are announced, and considerable classes have been gathered. Coöperation of practical administrators with regular institutions of instruction seems to be a condition of securing the best results. It has become clear that economy and humanity require that charity workers shall have knowledge and training to fit them for their delicate and exacting duties, quite as truly as in the case of physicians, nurses, pharmacists and teachers. A very respectable scientific literature has been produced in America, an essential condition of systematic instruction.

The worst abuses of public relief are found in the institutions of the smaller political units, as counties; and the only remedy thus far discovered is central administrative supervision and control. Jails and almshouses continue to be the most discouraging factors in our American system, just because the state does not control them. C. R. HENDERSON.

Chemistry

THE work on radio-activity continues to be of surpassing interest. When it was found, a year and a half ago, that helium is one of the decomposition products of radium, it began to appear possible that the elements might not be permanent. The alchemists' dream of transmutation of the elements seemed to be realized. If radium is not a permanent substance, it must be continuously produced from some source. The occurrence of radium in ores of uranium indicated that the latter element, which is also radioactive, might be the mother substance of radium, the atoms of uranium giving, as a decomposition product, the lighter atoms of radium. Several independent researches during the past year have tended to confirm this idea; but the direct attempt to estimate the amount of radium produced in a year, from a quantity of a pure uranium compound, gave, if any at all, less than one ten-thousandth of the amount of radium expected. On the other hand, we have the significant suggestion of Ramsay that radium may be formed by synthesis from elements of smaller atomic weight. In accord with this, Ramsay found that by the action of the penetrating rays of radium on glass the latter seemed to be partially transformed into a radioactive body. This may be a synthesis of a radio-active element.

Ostwald, who has been one of the greatest leaders in physical chemistry, has proposed to abandon the atomic theory, and has tried to show that the law of combination of the elements in definite proportions is a necessary consequence of fundamental thermodynamic laws. In spite of the author's prominence, there have been but few converts to the new doctrine.

Few problems in organic chemistry have been the subject of so much investigation as that of the constitution and synthesis of camphor. By the synthesis, by Komppa, of camphoric acid, which can readily be converted into camphor, not only has the constitution of both these substances been established, but also their complete synthesis from the elements been accomplished.

A number of processes, which are not new scientifically, have this year reached an important commercial stage. Among these may be mentioned the electrical production of artificial graphite from anthracite coal. The artificial production, on a commercial scale, of nitrates, from the nitrogen of the air, has made rapid strides. This problem is of the highest practical importance, considering the use of nitrates as a fertilizer and the very limited visible supply of the natural product.

H. N. MCCOY.

Electrical Industries

THE present year has not been one of great surprises in the line of electrical invention, but it has been a period of steady and satisfactory progress. In the field of electric railways, the interurban service has increased in popularity and in efficiency. Many systems are now employing track, road bed and rolling stock equal to the best of steam railroad practice. Every practicable device for increasing comfort and lessening danger is employed, so that the passenger may enjoy the absence of dirt and smoke, at

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the same time realizing the perfect control which the motorman has of his equipment. Cars weighing as much as forty-five tons and equipped with a motor capacity of five hundred horse-power are not uncommon, and with these cars the speed frequently exceeds sixty miles per hour.

Suburban traction is also receiving attention at the present time. Electricity is preëminently adapted to use for short runs with small headway between trains. Hence the recent adoption of electric locomotives by the New York Central Railroad for all service within a range of thirty-five miles of New York city. As it was found advisable to use electricity for the suburban service, and as steam and electric locomotives could not be economically operated together, it was decided to use electricity entirely up to the distance mentioned. From this point the through trains will be hauled by steam locomotives, which are easily substituted. For tunnel service, such as will be furnished by the Pennsylvania Railroad entering New York, electricity will be used as a matter of course.

In spite of the activity of the past year, the direct-current railway motor is still practically without a rival. There was begun recently the operation of a short line with the alternating-current motor of the General Electric Company, while the Westinghouse Company has several lines under contract. At present, interurban lines are, as a rule, supplied by alternating-current transmission systems, the current being transformed at great expense into direct current in substations located at convenient distributing points. With the successful introduction of the alternating-current motor, interurban traction will develop with increasing rapidity.

The status of electric lighting has not changed greatly during this year. The incandescent lamp still dominates the field of interior lighting, while the arc lamp is preferred for outdoor illumination. At the same time much progress has been made with the novel and efficient lamps which have been recently placed upon the market. The Nernst lamp, with its highly refractory filament, is increasingly popular, while for certain purposes the Cooper-Hewitt mercury-arc vapor lamp is coming into use. The actinic value of the light emitted by incandescent mercury vapor makes it particularly desirable for photographic purposes. Photographers are now independent of daylight for the making of fine pictures. Attempts are now being made to add yellow rays to this light by surrounding the tubes with ordinary incandescent lamps. A lamp of recent invention uses an electric arc between one carbon and one magnetite terminal. In this way a peculiar and efficient light is produced and the consumption of carbons is diminished. Along with improvements in the light source, have gone inventions in the line of improving the distribution of the light itself. Prismatic globes are used to reflect and refract the rays into the desired directions.

In this brief review it is possible to mention only a few of the lines of progress of the past year. In the science of electro-therapeutics the application of cathode rays has resulted in the relief of suffering, both by direct action and by aiding in diagnosis. In the transmission of intelligence, the year is notable by the opening of commercial lines for transmitting messages by wireless telegraphy. On Electricity Day at the World's Fair, commercial service was opened between St. Louis and Chicago, this being claimed as the longest land transmission in regular commercial service. It is seen that in all directions progress in electrical application is being made, and while novel inventions may not have been numerous, the year's work will be regarded as satisfactory by all interested in the development of the many industries comprised under the subject of electrical engineering.

HENRY H. NORRIS.

International Arbitration

A REVIEW of the achievements in the cause of international arbitration during the past year gives great satisfaction and cause for hope to all who desire its adoption as a means of securing universal and lasting peace.

By Article XIX of the Hague convention, the signatory powers reserved to themselves the right of concluding new agreements "with a view to extending obligatory arbitration to all cases which they may consider it possible to submit to

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it." Accordingly the governments of Great Britain and France entered into an agreement, signed October 14, 1903, obligating themselves for a period of five years to refer "differences * * of a legal nature, or relating to the interpretation of treaties * * which it may not have been possible to settle by diplomacy," to the Hague Tribunal, "provided they do not affect the vital interests, the independence or the honor" of the two states, "and do not concern the interests of third parties." Great Britain subsequently signed identical agreements with Italy, February 1, 1904, and with Spain, February 27, 1904.

The government of France also entered into similar agreements with Italy, January 25, 1904, with the Netherlands, April 6, 1904, and with the United States (although subject to the action of the Senate), November 1, 1904. It is understood that both Great Britain and France are negotiating with other governments with a like end in view.

The governments of Spain and Portugal, on May 31, 1904, signed a convention to the same effect as the above, varying it only by referring their differences in the first instance to a commission constituted expressly for the purpose by previous agreement, and if they failed to agree upon such a commission within one month then the question is to be submitted to the Hague Tribunal.

A treaty of similar purport to those already mentioned was signed by the governments of the Netherlands and Portugal, October 1, 1904. Our own government, also, has negotiations pending with Great Britain and France on this subject.

To the governments of Denmark and the Netherlands belongs the honor of concluding the most comprehensive convention on this subject which has hitherto been entered into. On February 12, 1904, these governments, "desiring to establish especially the principle of obligatory arbitration," undertake "to submit to the Permanent Court of Arbitration [at the Hague] *all* mutual differences and disputes between them," not cognizable by their regularly constituted courts, and which can not be settled through diplomatic channels. The treaty also provides that other states may adhere to it, if they so desire.

In addition to this, five Central and South American states and Hayti have signified their desire to adhere to the Hague convention for the pacific settlement of international differences, and a number of special arbitration conventions have been entered into by governments of South and Central American states providing for the settlement of boundary disputes and the like, notably those between Ecuador and Peru, Colombia and Peru, and Brazil and Peru.

The rupture between Great Britain and Russia, threatened by the action of the Baltic fleet, has also been averted by reference of the matter in dispute to a tribunal constituted in accordance with the principles of the Hague convention.

But the most striking event of the year in connection with international arbitration was the action of the Interparliamentary Union at its conference held in St. Louis in September last. This union, composed of over two thousand members, representing the national legislatures of twenty-two or more states, adopted a series of resolutions on this subject looking to a definite move in advance. Among other things, they asked for the convoking of a second Hague conference, and requested President Roosevelt to issue invitations thereto. The President's prompt and hearty response has just been evidenced by the issuance of instructions to our diplomatic representatives to confer with the governments to which they are accredited — signatories to the first Hague convention — and to ask their disposition in the matter.

While it is too early to form any definite opinion as to how the President's overtures will be received, it is safe to predict that they will meet with a cordial and favorable reception on the part of all the powers interested.

CHARLES RAY DEAN.

International Politics

THE year 1904 has been memorable in the history of international relations. War on a colossal scale has raged in the Far East, and the question of China's future seems likely to be answered after all by force rather than by diplomacy alone.

Unable to secure satisfactory assur-

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ances from Russia as to Korea and Manchuria, Japan, in February, began the hostilities for which she had so long been planning, and struck swift and hard blows one after the other. Successive disasters on the sea lost Russia naval supremacy and enabled Japanese armies to land at will. Unprepared on land, as well as on sea, the Russians were driven from the coast, Port Arthur is isolated and besieged, and finally a great army is interposed between the beleaguered fortress and the Russian base at Harbin.

Another most striking international fact of the year is the treaty, in March, between Great Britain and France, putting an end to their remaining differences. The most important features of the treaty relate to the "French shore" of Newfoundland, which hereafter ceases to be a bone of contention, to the recognition of a French sphere of influence in Morocco, the withdrawal of British objections to complete French sovereignty in Madagascar, and finally the explicit recognition on the part of France that Great Britain's status in Egypt is no longer to be questioned. This last provision of the pact has since been accepted by the rest of the great powers, and hence may be regarded as an accomplished fact in the public law of Europe. No doubt, after a suitable interval, Egypt will be in some shape annexed to the British empire, and thus the beneficent work of Lord Cromer will run no risk of being wasted.

The United States has twice had to use the moral force of its navy to secure justice from Mohammedan powers in the old world. The sublime porte was not convinced that it was advisable to grant to Americans in Turkey such privileges as are given to Europeans, until an American squadron appeared at Smyrna, and an American citizen kidnaped by brigands in Morocco was released by action of the Moorish government only on the arrival of American war-ships at Tangiers. Diplomacy is greatly aided by big guns, even if they do not have to be fired.

Finally, the President of the United States has invited the nations of the world to a second conference at the Hague, to take into consideration further ameliorations in the methods of war, and to settle somewhat more definitely the rights of neutrals. The need for agreements on these heads has become plainly apparent during the present war. The application of the rules of contraband to coal, provisions and railroad material; the status of so-called "volunteer" cruisers, and the right of a belligerent cruiser under certain conditions to sink a neutral vessel carrying contraband, for instance, have given rise to decided differences of opinion among the foreign offices.

HARRY PRATT JUDSON.

Labor and Capital

THE year 1904 is distinguished by the aggressiveness of employers' associations, reductions in wages and the prominence of the open-shop issue. This marks the third stage of the cycle of prosperity. First, the rise of prices and trusts. Then the rise of wages and unions. Third, a falling market. The unions were tardy in organizing to get a share of the rising market, but the employers were prompt in forcing reductions on the falling market. The year has shown that employers can organize to fight as well as unions. The aggressive unions during the year have been generally defeated. The cautious, experienced and well-managed unions have either accepted reductions or withheld demands, and a widespread conflict, such as might have been expected at the start of a depression, has been avoided. Colorado has shown what employers could do when they felt that the public was with them, and in the present highly organized position of labor, unreasonableness on either side might easily suppress the courts, overthrow civil government and throw the militia in the pay of the employers. The deliberate acceptance of reductions in the spring by the mineworkers and longshoremen after prolonged conferences and a compromise with the employers offers the strongest hope that reason instead of coercion may yet govern generally. Those conferences, which failed to attract the special reporters and magazine writers, or to call forth columns of headlines, were really the typical labor situation of the year. Many similar conferences followed in other industries all over the country, some of them adopting reductions, as in window glass and the Republic Iron & Steel,

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others renewing old agreements and others inaugurating new agreements. Of the latter the New York subway and the New York teamsters are the most important, on account of the public interests involved. A crisis was averted in the anthracite coal industry through reference of a dispute to Judge Gray, instead of the regular umpire provided by the Strike Commission award, and Judge Gray has since accepted the position held by Senator Hanna in the National Civic Federation. The machinists' union, which suffered in more than two hundred strikes and lockouts, through the aggressiveness of the manufacturing employers, made many new agreements and continued old ones with nearly every railroad employer. The injunction continues prominent, though it is noticeable that it was invoked by small employers, and not by the "trusts." Several unions, particularly the garment workers of New York, lost on the open-shop issue, and two or three courts declared a closed-shop contract illegal. Public attention has turned from the walking delegate, who is seen to have been only the agent of the union, to the union shop, which is the union itself.

Most unfortunate of all is the condition in cotton textiles at Fall River, with a reduction of ten per cent in wages a year ago and a strike lasting since July of this year against another reduction of twelve and one-half per cent. A corner in the raw material, competition of southern mills and wages already low make the position of the employer and employe in this most peaceable and patient of all great strikes truly deplorable.

There are some indications that the unions are getting closer together by amalgamation—though the refusal of the captains and pilots on the great lakes to federate indicates with what reluctance in certain quarters—that they are equipping themselves with higher dues and larger reserve funds, are settling jurisdictional disputes, perfecting their internal administration and preparing for long campaigns. J. R. COMMONS.

Literature

GIVEN a thousand new books belonging to the categories recognized as literary, it is barely possible that one out of the thousand may be an addition to the permanent literature of the world. Ten may turn out to be works of such sterling worth as to deserve generous applause, and to hold their own among the books that are remembered for a generation, let us say. One hundred may have sufficient value to occupy for two or three years that convenient receptacle which we call the public mind. The rest may safely be reckoned as ephemeral — whatever success they may achieve being almost literally of a day — claimants for the brief favor of some small section of the fickle multitude, quickly consigned to the outer darkness of forgetfulness.

When the literary production of a whole year is to be glimpsed within the limits of a single page of print, it is obvious that no attempt can be made to go beyond the first two of the four classes above designated, and the attempt to do even as much as that can be little more than so much guesswork. Speaking of English literature alone, one can assert with comparative safety that Mr. Swinburne's new volume of poems belongs to permanent literature, and a similar claim may be made with almost equal confidence for Mr. Moody's poem of the Prometheus myth. In fiction, nothing has appeared that can possibly be described as of the first importance; Mr. Hardy and Mr. Meredith are the only living writers of English from whom such work might have been expected, and both have kept silent. A few of the best novels of the year, named almost at random, are "Dorothea," by Maarten Maartens; "The Queen's Quair," by Mr. Hewlett; "Sabrina Warham," by Mr. Housman; "The Last Hope," by the late Mr. Scott; "The Son of Royal Langbrith," by Mr. Howells; "The Common Lot," by Mr. Herrick; "Olive Latham," by Mrs. Voynich; "Sanctuary," by Mrs. Wharton, and "The Deliverance," by Miss Glasgow. There are doubtless others as good as many of these, but these must suffice for our present purpose.

Among memoirs, the Spencer Autobiography is unquestionably the most important book of the year, and must ever rank high among the intimate confessions of great men. Mr. Conway's recently published memoirs are of the deepest interest to serious readers, and the new collection of Ruskin's letters constitutes a treasure

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of lasting value. Perhaps a place should also be found in this brief list for the memoirs of the late Senator Hoar.

Turning to the literature of continental Europe, and taking for a guide the special reviews which were printed in the first September issue of *The Athenaeum*, little that is striking arrests the attention. Björnson, Ibsen, Tolstoy and Carducci are the greatest European writers now living, and we have from them nothing of consequence save Tolstoy's eloquent and moving "Bethink Yourselves," which is not so much literature as a tract. From men of the second rank, we may chronicle d'Annunzio's drama, "La Figlia di Jorio," Hauptmann's tragedy, "Rose Bernot," Sudermann's comedy, "Der Sturmgeselle Sokrates," and Echegaray's "La Desequilibrada." How extraordinary a fact it is that year after year the most important works of literature that come to us from the continent are works written for the stage; whereas that is the one category in which we should never dream of expecting an important work from any English or American author.

The most noteworthy death of the year was that of the veteran Hungarian romancer, Maurus Jokai, the one Hungarian writer widely read throughout the world. The most interesting event, outside of necrology, was the Arezzo celebration of the six hundredth anniversary of Petrarch's birth. Considerable attention was also attracted in France to the centenary of George Sand's birth; in the United States to the similar centenary of our most consummate artist in literature, Nathaniel Hawthorne.

WILLIAM MORTON PAYNE.

Physics

DURING the past twelve months there have been no epoch-making discoveries in experimental physics, unless the extraordinary results which have been obtained by Blondlot in the study of his so-called N-rays are to be regarded as such. Since, however, few physicians seem to be able to repeat, with any measure of success, Blondlot's experiments, considerable skepticism still exists as to the objective reality of the rays reported from his laboratory.

In the domain of theory, on the other hand, one paper has appeared which has attracted universal attention. It is J. J. Thomson's paper on the "Structure of the Atom." In this, one of the foremost of physicists gives to the world his picture of a thoroughly up-to-date atom. He finds it to consist of a sphere of positive electricity within which are revolving, with enormous speeds, concentric rings of tiny negative corpuscles, or electrons; the number of the latter being proportional to the atomic weight of the atom, and varying with different atoms from one thousand to two hundred and fifty thousand. By a mathematical analysis of this mechanism, Thomson has considerable success in accounting for the known properties of various atoms, especially noteworthy being his explanations of the periodic law and of radio-activity.

Closely allied to this theoretical work is the attempt of Larmor and Lorenz, Abraham and Langevin, to show that matter itself is electrical in origin, and thus to derive the whole of mechanics from the equations of the electro-magnetic field. The only experimental evidence for the correctness of these views is found in a recent and notable research of Kaufmann's, in which it was found that the apparent mass of the particles constituting the Beta rays of radium does indeed increase with increasing speed, and in much the same proportion in which it should increase if these particles possess only electrical mass.

In the domain of radio-activity, there have been no notable discoveries, although the definite confirmation of the earlier reports regarding the production of helium from radium deserves a prominent place in the record of the year's progress. This discovery gives us the first in any way reliable clue to the age of the earth's crust. Also the work of Townsend, of Oxford, on the part played by the positive ions in the genesis of the electric spark is of prime importance, for it gives us for the first time a clear picture of the mechanism of the disruptive electrical discharge.

H. A. Wilson's measurement of the size of an atom of electricity also deserves mention, for it confirms by a new method J. J. Thomson's previous measurement, and enables us now to determine rather

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than merely to estimate the weight of an atom of hydrogen and the number of molecules in a cubic centimeter of gas under ordinary conditions. The former value is 1×10^{-24}, the latter 4×10^{19}.

The most notable work in optics has perhaps been done by Michelson, of the University of Chicago, and Brace, of the University of Nebraska. The former has demonstrated by his work on "The Spectra of Imperfect Gratings" the uncertainty of our present determinations of wave lengths, while the latter has confirmed by an elaborate experiment the now famous result previously obtained by Michelson and Morley, of the lack of relative motion of the earth and the ether.

R. A. MILLIKAN.

Physiology

THE remarkable effects produced by the emanation of radium on the tissues have excited much attention among physiologists and physicians during the past year. The skin and the nervous system have been found to be much more sensitive to its action than the muscles, connective tissues and intestines. Ulceration of the skin and well-marked nervous disturbances, going on under certain conditions to paralysis, under others to convulsions, and in both cases leading ultimately to death, have been observed in animals. The development of eggs is interfered with, and even when it is not totally prevented the embryos are abnormal. The primary action of the rays seems to be the setting up of a process of degeneration in the affected cells, which is followed by inflammatory changes. In this respect the radium emanation resembles the Roentgen rays and the ultraviolet rays of light, which have been proved to exert so beneficial an influence on lupus and other diseases. But, as a therapeutic agent, radium can not at present be considered to have passed the stage of experiment. The radium rays appear to have a special effect on lecithin (a fatty substance containing nitrogen), which it decomposes. Since lecithin is a constituent of all cells, and is especially abundant in eggs and in rapidly growing normal tissues and tumors, the significance of this action is great.

Even more surprising is the announcement that active muscles and nerves give off peculiar rays, which increase the brightness of a fluorescent screen, a piece of paper, for instance, covered with a thin film of hexagonal zinc blende or calcium sulphid. Not only may such screens be seen to glow more brightly when actively contracting muscles, e. g., the muscles of the arm or foot, are brought near them, but an objective record of the increased luminosity can be taken on a photographic plate. The relation of these rays to the so-called N-rays is still under discussion. It seems probable that the rays emitted by nerves are not identical with those given off by the heart, diaphragm and other muscles.

What appears to be decisive evidence on the long-pending question whether the beat of the heart is of muscular or of nervous origin has been found in the heart of *limulus* (the king-crab). Owing to the peculiar arrangement of the cardiac ganglia and nerves in this animal, it is possible to separate the heart completely from its nervous mechanism without injuring it. When this is done, the heart, it is stated, ceases to beat. In this animal, then, the nervous apparatus is essential for the maintenance of the heart-beat.

Research on the movements and chemical phenomena of digestion has continued active and fruitful. The length of the sojourn of various foods in the stomach has been studied by means of the Roentgen rays. Starchy food has been seen to pass more rapidly through the pylorus into the intestine than fatty food, and fat more rapidly than proteid. The remarkable adaptation of the various digestive secretions to the nature of the food has received fresh illustration. In the physiology of the nervous system perhaps the most interesting work has been the reexamination of the question whether the regeneration of the peripheral end of a divided nerve is possible when all connection with the central nervous system is prevented. The orthodox view, that regeneration under those circumstances is impossible, has been assailed by various observers. It is still, however, too early to say whether the experiments which they maintain to be incompatible with that view may not after all be reconciled with it by further work.

GEORGE N. STEWART.

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Religion

THE past year has not been marked by any great religious movements, although there have been revivals of some extent in America under the direction of the Presbyterian Church, and Dr. Torrey reports large results from his evangelistic campaign in Great Britain, although many prominent religious leaders were not in sympathy with his efforts. In France, the state has practically broken with the Church of Rome and annulled the Concordat, with intimations of a complete disestablishment of all churches in the future. The fate of the Combes ministry will doubtless determine this question. In Scotland, the remarkable decision of the Judicial Committee of the House of Lords has put the possessions of the Free Church, the value of which runs up into the millions, into the hands of the "Wee Kirkers," or those few clergy and laymen of the Free Church who refused to assent to the union of the Free Church with the United Presbyterians in 1900. All attempts at compromise have thus far failed and the Wee Kirkers are already taking legal steps to get possession of the schools, colleges, churches and endowments of the great denomination they are held to constitute. In the meantime, a bill has been prepared, to be presented at the coming session of Parliament, which it is hoped will counteract the decision of the lords. Italy has seen the Congress of Free Thinkers meeting at Rome, much to the displeasure of all good people of the Holy City, and, what is more important, has seen the church aiding the government against socialism. In America, the matter of perhaps the most importance has been the discussion as to the church and divorce. In the General Convention of the Episcopal Church, recently held in Boston, a decision was reached forbidding the remarriage of divorced people, except in the case of the innocent party after the lapse of a year. The Religious Education Association has held a number of conventions and is steadily enlarging its work.

Unusual attention has been paid by religious societies to social questions, and, at least in the case of the Roman Catholic Church, the clergy has come to appreciate more clearly the bearing of socialism upon the future of religion.

A somewhat discouraging aspect of the year is the decrease in students for the ministry in the Congregational, Presbyterian and Baptist denominations; the persistent indebtedness of missionary societies, and the restlessness of Protestant clergy in their fields.

SHAILER MATHEWS.

The United States Navy

THE most notable fact in connection with the work of the navy for 1904 is the approach to completion of a considerable number of most important additions to the strength of the United States on the sea.

The second most prominent fact has been the improvement in marksmanship of the vessels of the navy and the progress made in the development of explosives and of devices for increasing the accuracy of gun fire. In addition, a material advance has been made in the development of appliances increasing the safety with which the high powers developed in modern ordnance can be utilized.

On the point of progress in the construction of vessels for the new navy, gratifying progress is shown as between the January report and that of October. In the latter report, besides the fact of the completion of the Missouri, the Ohio appears as practically completed, and the armored cruisers Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Colorado and Maryland have reached a state of over ninety per cent of completion, thirty per cent of their construction having been done during the year.

Four protected cruisers have been added to the strength of the United States in this class, and the fifth of the type is approaching serviceable condition. The year has witnessed a large number of launchings, representing a total of war vessel tonnage such as has never been put in the water during a corresponding period in the history of the United States, and including two vessels, the Connecticut and the Louisiana, which on completion will be the largest and most powerful vessels of war ever constructed by the United States, and which in type, size and probable strength and efficiency compare most favorably with the best naval construction of the entire world.

There are now eight battle-ships of the first class at a stage of more than fifty per

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cent completion, seven great armored cruisers more than half completed, and four protected cruisers at or beyond the launching stage. The rapid completion of the vessels now in the water will mark the coming year as adding the most notable fleet of war vessels to the American navy of any period in the history of this country, and will place in the hands of those charged with the administration of the navy the material which has long been needed to secure an effective fleet organization, and to afford opportunities for increasing the standard of efficiency of the officers and men, who constitute the real strength of the naval force of the country, and who should be afforded the latest and most advanced appliances to enable them to perfect themselves in the art of naval warfare. PAUL MORTON.

PHOTOGRAPHING PRAIRIE DOGS

BY

CRAIG S. THOMS

A TOWN one mile wide and three long usually does not contain a large number of inhabitants, but the one of which I write has possibly fifty thousand — prairie dogs. The semiarid prairies of the West, which are used mostly for grazing, are noted for these little animals, which, though interesting, take such complete possession of the land as to become a menace to the interests of the ranchman. Not only do they crop the grass as closely as sheep, for some distance around the burrow, but dig up and eat the roots as well. The ranchman sees in them a pest to be exterminated. But how? Being a fair shot with the rifle, I proposed to exterminate them by the rifle process, but, after shooting about five hundred cartridges, there seemed more than when I began. Provided with a good supply of carbon disulphide, I went with a ranchman one day to destroy a few newly started suburban villages. We saturated balls of cotton with the liquid, placed one in each hole, set them on fire, and, after they had burned half a minute, closed the mouth of the burrow. Though the majority were killed, a number appeared the next day as chipper as ever.

But I was more interested in studying these sprightly little inhabitants of the lonely prairie than in killing them. I thoroughly agreed with the ranchman, who said, "If they were not so destructive I would like to have them around."

When they are grazing some distance from their burrows, if you surprise them by suddenly appearing over the brow of the hill, an alarm is given by those standing guard and all run like a herd of diminutive steers until they are safe at the mouth of their holes, ready to dart in. They do not dart in at once, however, but stop to watch you, some on all fours and some erect on their hind legs. As many as a dozen will sometimes enter one hole; and few sights on the prairie are more interesting than one of these families encircling the crest of its burrow mound, all standing at full height. As you approach, they come to all fours and enter the hole one by one, the young going first. The last one usually waits in the bowlshaped mouth of the burrow until you are quite near. So low do they dip into these bowls that often all you can see is the head and the short, brushlike tail. A clicking bark is uttered incessantly, and at each bark the tail jerks forward as though operated by a spring. When at last they descend into their holes, it is with a defiant chattering bark that is distinctly heard several feet underground.

Seldom are their

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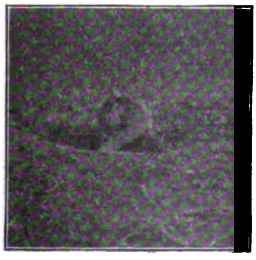
burrows found on top of steep hills; the side hills and, on the more level prairies, the low places are their preference, though the sites selected are such that the water will not overflow their mounds, which are sometimes two feet high and eight feet across at the base.

As already suggested, the inside of the mound is bowlshaped, often three feet across at the rim and tapering to the hole at its bottom. After rains, when the soil is soft, the dogs mold the insides of these bowls with their feet, and their footprints may be seen in perpendicular rows upon the well-pressed sides. These bowls probably have a twofold purpose: to keep the water, which rushes down the side hill after a heavy rain, out of their burrows, and also to catch enough rain to store in their cellars, for household purposes.

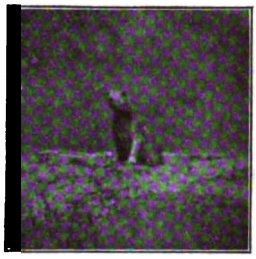
So deep and perpendicular are some of their holes that it is difficult to see how the owners can climb out or how they can keep from taking dangerous "headers" when they enter. One that I measured was seven feet in a straight drop.

It is said by some that their burrows go down to water, but this is probably a mistake, as in many localities where they live it is difficult to find water by boring, and they are not infrequently found far from their villages in search of water, their cisterns doubtless having run dry.

To secure photographs of these interesting creatures might seem an easy task, for they often sit barking at you as you ride by not more than twenty feet from them. If you lie half concealed behind some near rock or bush, they come out



and by their incessant barking inform the whole town of your presence. They are very suspicious of the camera, however, when it is placed near their burrows, even though it be laid on the ground and covered. They are apt to present to your lens little more than head and tail, as they lie half concealed in the bowl, whereas what you want is a photograph of one quite

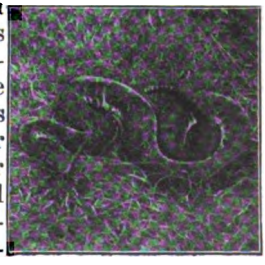


unafraid and standing full height on his hind legs.

After numerous failures, I resorted to a number of expedients. Small cocks of hay were placed about fifteen feet from a number of burrows; rocks, as large as I could carry, were laid a little distance from others; Russian thistles were cut off by the roots and piled beside still others; and, where burrows were near enough to fences, boards were nailed so as to conceal the camera. From the holes near these blinds, the dogs almost invariably moved away for a few days, after which, having accepted the new element in their dooryard as a permanent fact, they returned and seemed as much at home as ever. The camera was then laid on the ground, focused on the burrow, covered with the hay or Russian thistles, or hidden behind the stones or boards, and the shutter operated from a distance by a long string.

The prairie dog's sense of smell is evidently very keen, and the camera must be placed on the leeward side of his home. The best time to secure the photograph is in the morning or evening, when all are out feeding. Of course, many may be seen at any time; yet, when driven into their holes in the middle of the day, they are apt to keep you waiting a long time before coming out, whereas in the morning or evening they will emerge in twenty or thirty minutes.

While you sit on the side hill, string in hand, waiting for your photograph, those on the opposite side hill greet you in



chorus with a "whay" that sounds like derisive laughter; or some little fellow a few rods away eyes you for half an hour over the rim of his bowl and keeps up his incessant bark, appris-

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ing all within hearing of their danger. When standing on their hind legs, they have a peculiar way of throwing back the head, raising the front feet and jumping as high as they can. It is evidently in play. Indeed, they are as playful as young kittens, romping and chasing each other about their burrows, and from one burrow to another. Men who claim to know say that they are tamed very quickly and make good pets, following one about and hunting in his pockets for food. I am, sure, however, that one's clothes would not be safe from the ravages of their teeth, as on several occasions I found the string by which my shutter was operated cut into half a dozen pieces by them. So wary are they that it is almost impossible to snare them, and to drown or dig them out involves great labor. The best way to catch them is to place a barrel with both ends knocked out over their holes, pour a few pailfuls of sand into the burrow, and wait. They will work their way out through the sand, but can not work their way back again, and you find your captive in the barrel.

Aside from the ranchmen, who do not love the prairie dogs, because they injure the ranges, they have several enemies. The most destructive, perhaps, is the badger. These mighty diggers go into their burrows after them, enlarging the holes as they descend. So rapidly can the badger dig that

if a horseman sees one at a distance on the prairie, away from his burrow, he will make a hole sufficient to cover himself before the horseman can get to him. One who tested the badger in this regard told me that he found him upon his back digging, and all he could see was his tail.

Another of the prairie dogs' enemies is the rattlesnake. The common notion that these two live in friendly relations is now, I think, quite well exploded. When a rattler enters a burrow, the dogs come scurrying out in a hurry and begin filling the hole. Their peculiar note of alarm summons the other dogs in the vicinity, and their united and excited labors soon fill the hole and render the snake a prisoner.

The burrowing owl must also be classed as an enemy, and doubtless makes many a meal upon the dogs' tender young. These birds have been seen to drive the dogs out of their holes, come out after them and dart down upon them, driving them to other burrows. When they find them abandoned or have driven the dogs from them, these owls make their homes in the burrows and, like the dogs, have several. Three owls that I observed had eight holes, four in one place and four others about two hundred yards distant. I have driven these birds into holes where prairie dogs lived, but I have never known one of the dogs to enter a hole inhabited by an owl.

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THE MEANING OF THE ELECTION

BY CHARLES H. DENNIS

THE sweeping victory won by President Roosevelt and the Republican party under his leadership at the recent election was foreshadowed in the proceedings of the Republican National Convention last June. There all the representatives of party sentiment conceded the strength of character, the winning frankness and the honesty of purpose of the President. They dwelt with enthusiasm upon the success of his administration. They hailed him as the chief issue of the impending campaign. "He is stronger than his party," declared Senator Depew from the platform of the convention. So the delegates nominated him by acclamation, and went home confident that he would win.

This was no case of hero worship. It was merely a recognition that the President had satisfied the people. A man of direct methods, who has been much in the public eye since his young manhood, busying himself with constructive work beneficial to popular interests whenever trusted with official position, he was no new discovery when he entered the campaign. His engaging qualities wore well. Yet they were not such qualities as appeal to politicians. In political life he has demonstrated repeatedly his faith in the dynamic force of open methods. He has played the game of politics above the table. This is not the ordinary politician's way, nor is it pleasing to the ordinary politician. Its success depends upon the sympathy and confidence of the public.

This year's national campaign was largely a matter of contrasted personalities. Judge Parker, the Democratic nominee, a distinguished jurist and worthy citizen, stood as an expression of the party's revulsion from radical politics. Mr. Cleveland has intimated that there is a similarity between the Democratic candidate and President Buchanan. There is force in the suggestion. Expressions of extreme concern lest the letter or the spirit of the Constitution be violated fell from his lips with that sincerity which marked the utterances of the cautious statesman who before the close of his administration saw the nation on the verge of civil war without making any effective effort to avert the mighty tragedy. One may well believe that the later Democratic leader's caution would not have spelled impotency in such a crisis. Yet the American people, in their absolute freedom from apprehension lest their government shall be subverted by some aspiring commander-in-chief of their army and navy, dread the effects of undue caution more than they do the results of well-considered boldness. In this

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they are right. That the present respect in which this nation is held abroad dates from President Cleveland's firm stand in the Venezuelan boundary case is a matter of history. The President and his Secretary of State met that great crisis in a way which delighted this peaceful but proud and fearless nation. No action so bold, no risk so great, has been taken by President Roosevelt. But he has urged continually the necessity for strengthening our navy to a point where it can command peace in such an emergency. His "big stick" doctrine is the doctrine of the courageous but prudent man. The recent rapid growth of the navy, which has been attended by heavy expenditures, means that the responsibility which rests upon the nation because of its adherence to the Monroe doctrine is accepted deliberately and in all seriousness. This is not, as disapproving critics say, the policy of rashness. He is rash who makes no adequate arrangements to meet his heavy obligations.

Because these things are true, the attack of the Democratic leaders upon the President's supposed militarism, and their accusations of recklessness in his dealings with other nations, fell flat. Finally, Judge Parker charged the President and Mr. Cortelyou, whom the former had placed in control of the Republican campaign, with using the machinery of the government to extort large contributions from corporations that employ unlawful methods in the conduct of their business. These charges were received with astonishment by the country. They were indignantly branded as falsehoods by President Roosevelt in a public letter. Since no proof in support of them was presented, there came before election day a distinct recoil from the candidate who had brought himself to countenance the dishonorable surmise.

Yet when the people soberly reflect upon this matter of campaign contributions, their thoughts are not pleasant. They have been assured that only half as much money was spent by the Republican committee during the late campaign as was spent in the first McKinley campaign. Four thousand individuals by voluntary contributions provided the money, says Mr. Cortelyou. Still, it is conceded that some large corporations contributed to the fund. Judge Parker declares that such corporations were not permitted to give money to the Democratic committee's expenses. He holds that it should be made a crime for the officers of any trust or corporation to contribute money for the control of an election. Such views are held by many. The American people must face squarely this evil of large campaign funds. It has been a national scandal for years. Because of it, a cynicism is abroad which leads men to sneer at the actions of Presidents and legislators, deeming these public servants to be at all times under obligations to moneyed interests which prevent them from acting frankly and heartily on the side of the public when such interests are involved. The secrecy with which the evil clothes itself gives free play to surmise and slander. In the interests of pure government, a law should be enacted by Congress compelling full publicity in the matter of campaign expenses at federal elections.

It may be set down as one of the lessons of the recent election that the people want a strong government; that is to say, they want national advancement by virtue of governmental action whenever it is feasible. The day of isolation and practical withdrawal from the affairs of the world beyond our own borders is definitely over. Charges that the Constitution has been or is about to be violated are serious at all times, but a strict constructionist who loves the Constitution more than is good for it is no better patriot than he who uses it within wise limitations to serve the interests of the nation. In President Roosevelt and Judge Parker were presented to the voters two interesting types of statesmen of rival schools. They gave a choice of governmental methods as widely divergent as were their temperamental differences. In these circumstances, the selection made by the people must be accepted as deliberate and discriminating.

With the opening of the national canvass, a strong effort was made by the Democratic managers to rally the forces of conservatism to their candidate. With the failure of the attempts to prove the present administration reckless in its diplomacy, and spendthrift in home affairs, the desire to interest those who condemn the lawlessness of trusts led onward to the

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unfortunate charges involving the honor of the President. At no time, however, even with the powerful aid of Mr. Bryan, and notwithstanding the cry of the Colorado miners to union labor everywhere that Roosevelt must be defeated, did the radical elements accept the candidacy of Judge Parker as affording hope to them. This is manifested in the heavy vote for Debs, the Socialist, which, although including the ballots of many recalcitrant Democrats, must be accepted as establishing for the first time the Socialist party on a national footing in the United States. Socialism, which has become so great a force in the countries of western Europe, is likely to play a part henceforth in American politics.

During the last two national administrations the country has rioted in money-making. It has not seemed to matter much to the people at large whether many or few persons got the greater share of the money, provided plenty of it were made by somebody. Surely it is time to look carefully after the distribution of the country's wealth. The prosperity of the farmer has served as a basis for prosperity not only among those who carry crops to market, and among forestallers of every degree, but also among those who do the country's manufacturing and merchandising. The man who takes a profit which may be pushed up in times of plenty has done well in a worldly sense. Those with fixed incomes, however, have suffered from prices of commodities made unnecessarily high by artificial methods. They must hope that the preparations which the national government has made to regulate the operations of oppressive combines presently will begin to work beneficially to the masses. In this hope they have given another term to the President whose past career has inspired them with confidence in his integrity and forcefulness. Now comes the test of the government's ability to secure under his direction a more general distribution of the fruits of national prosperity. The high tariff, discriminating freight rates and other bulwarks of the harmful trusts have to be reckoned with.

One of the great political parties, if not both of them, must stand forth as the defender of popular rights in a literal sense, not merely in public addresses and written platforms. "So far as in my power lies," says the President, "I shall see to it that every man has a square deal, no less and no more." It is a square deal and no more that reasonable Americans desire. That being assured to them, the doctrines of the Socialist agitator can make little headway in this country. The trust that carries forward its great enterprises in a legitimate manner, relying solely on efficient management and fair dealing to continue it in control of the market, inspires admiration and gratitude among the people. But the trust that is rendered secure and defiant by special privilege in fixing its profits as high as they will go, must be dealt with effectively by criminal statute or otherwise.

President Roosevelt has now been elected to his high office in his own right. He has the people's mandate. One may suppose that henceforth he will feel freer than in the past to carry out his own views as to national policies. The future course of this virile man in dealing with those forms of injustice from which the public suffers at the hands of various corporations engaged in interstate commerce must be of absorbing interest to the masses of Americans. How far may a courageous and right-thinking President go in curbing injustice practiced in this manner? Will effective action be sanctioned by his party? Much depends upon the answers to be supplied to these questions. If the President during his new administration shall not succeed in curbing the evils that flow from special privilege by which the people at large are denied a "square deal," the rising wave of radicalism will soon grow to huge proportions.

What is to be the future course of the Democratic party? Does it not seem probable that this course will be shaped more largely by President Roosevelt than by any other man? As the opposition party, it will aim to take such form as will strengthen it against the policies of the administration. If effective action aimed at oppressive trusts shall drive into opposition the powerful forces that control them, the Democratic party may remain the champion of conservatism, as in the recent campaign. If no such action shall be taken, Mr. Bryan and his friends presumably will speedily regain control of their great party.

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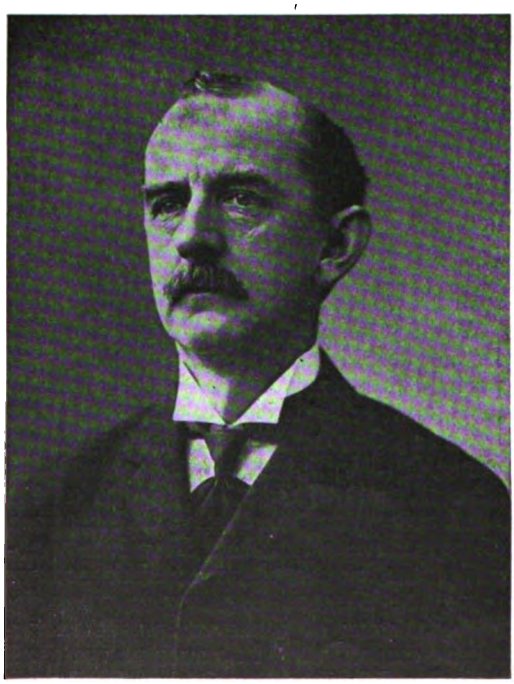
MEN AND WOMEN OF THE MONTH

Robert John Wynne
Postmaster-General

President Roosevelt's appointment of Robert John Wynne, first assistant postmaster-general, to a seat in the cabinet as postmaster-general, is the logical result of capacity and faithful pursuance of duty. For some eighteen years Mr. Wynne had been a Washington newspaper correspondent, and in connection with his journalistic work had his suspicions aroused as to the existence of graft in the Postoffice Department. In 1902 he was appointed first assistant postmaster-general and shortly after initiated the movement which led to the exposure of the grafting conspiracy. For the fight which ensued, both courage and keenness were required, and he demonstrated the possession of both qualities.

Robert J. Wynne is a son of a veteran of the Mexican War and was born in New York, November 18, 1851. He was educated in the public schools of that city. Going to Philadelphia, he became a telegraph operator and eventually chief operator of the Pacific and Atlantic Telegraph Company. In 1880 he began newspaper work, as correspondent of the old Cincinnati *Gazette,* continuing with that journal until 1892, when he became private secretary to Charles Foster, secretary of the treasury. At the opening of the second Cleveland administration, he returned to journalism, as correspondent of the Cincinnati *Tribune,* and, later, that of the New York *Press,* which position he occupied when made first assistant postmaster-general. To the latter office he will doubtless return should Mr. Cortelyou be appointed postmaster-general — a very probable event in case President Roosevelt is reëlected.

Mr. Wynne is by inheritance a member of the Loyal Legion. He has been president of the Gridiron Club and is still a member of that and the Army and Navy Club.



WINTHROP MURRAY CRANE
Senator-Elect from Massachusetts

Winthrop Murray Crane
The Successor of Senator Hoar

THE "Grand Old Man" of American politics is to have a worthy successor in Winthrop Murray Crane, ex-governor of Massachusetts, who has been chosen to fill Senator Hoar's place in the United States Senate.

Born in Dalton, Massachusetts, April 23, 1853, Senator Crane received only the education provided by the public schools of his native place and neighboring seminaries. Opportunity was ready for him in the Dalton paper mills founded by his grandfather more than a hundred years ago. In the management of these he showed business capacity and executive ability of no mean order. In an old mill, with inadequate machinery, he personally invented the banknote paper which the United States Government has used since 1879.

When chosen lieutenant-governor of

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Massachusetts in 1897, he had already had considerable political experience, having been a delegate to more than one national convention and having also been for some time a member of the Republican National Committee. From 1900 to 1902, Mr. Crane served as governor of his state. The welfare of Massachusetts and its people was his first consideration, and on various occasions party interests were made subservient to the public good. A notable instance was his veto of the Subway Bill in June, 1901, which, if passed, would have surrendered the city of Boston's rights to a private corporation for a term of forty years. President Roosevelt has twice offered Mr. Crane a seat in the cabinet, once as secretary of the treasury and once the navy portfolio. His present appointment shows again how persistent is the tendency for the Senate to be composed of representatives of large industrial interests.

General Stoessel

Defender of Port Arthur

LIKE Kuropatkin, General Stoessel, who has been giving the Japanese so hard a task at the "Gibraltar of the East," is one of the heroes of the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78. He fought at Plevna and Shipka Pass and also in Skobeleff's campaigns of conquest in Turkestan. By birth he is not a Russian, but a Swiss, and is about fifty-five years old. He is so tall and bulky that his weight is said to tire out many horses a day in his constant riding about Port Arthur. He is a rigid disciplinarian and very profane. His fighting mettle appeared in his haughty refusal when General Nogi demanded the surrender of Port Arthur on August 17. He was recommended to his present post of commandant by Admiral Alexieff.

Bertha Von Suttner

The Inspirer of the Hague Peace Conference

"THE most remarkable woman in the world," was Pope Leo's description of the Baroness Bertha von Suttner, who has been visiting this country as delegate to the International Peace Congress. She came here as the representative of the Austrian "Friends of Peace" — a society organized by herself — the Peace Society of Hungary and the Academical Peace Society of the University of Vienna.

DR. ANITA MCGEE

The American woman who took a group of nurses to Japan for hospital service.

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The work which has brought her fame was the writing of a novel ten years ago, entitled, "Die Waffen Nieder" — "Ground Arms." It has been called the "Uncle Tom's Cabin" of the peace movement, and it is now published in twenty languages, has passed through thirty editions in Germany, and is still in great demand. The reading of this novel by Count Mouravieff, the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, who brought it to the attention of the Czar, resulted in an interview between the Baroness and the Czar, followed by the calling of the Hague international peace conference, at which was established the Hague tribunal of arbitration between nations.

Although so ardent an advocate of peace, the Baroness Bertha von Suttner belongs to a military family. She is the daughter of Field Marshal Count Franz Kinsky, and was born June 9, 1843, at Prague, in Bohemia, a countess in her own right. All the men in her family were

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GENERAL GRIPPENBERG
At the head of Russia's Second Army

soldiers. When a girl, she was betrothed to Prince Adolf Wittgenstein, of a noble Austrian family. But he was killed in battle, and she married the man she loved, the Baron Gondraca von Suttner. In spite of the opposition of both families, the marriage was an ideally happy one for forty years. The Baron and Baroness were prolific writers and frequently united in the production of romances, under the pseudonym of "B. Orloff." The Baron died about two years ago.

The Baroness is a great favorite in European courts and a social leader at the Austrian capital, and was an intimate friend of the Empress Elizabeth.

General Grippenberg

Commander of Russia's Second Army

GENERAL GRIPPENBERG, a man of large experience and sixty-six years of age, who has been commander of the Third Army Corps in the Russian province of Vilna, is now to take charge of the second army which the Czar finds himself compelled to create. In the Emperor's rescript, he is placed on an equal footing with General Kuropatkin.

General Grippenberg belongs to an old Finnish family. One of his ancestors won distinction under Charles XII., and another under Gustavus III., so that he comes of warlike stock and inherits the military spirit. His own laurels have been obtained in the Crimean war, the Polish insurrection of 1863, and the Turkestan campaign of 1867-'68. For his part in the latter he received the Cross of St. George and a sword of honor. He commanded the Moscow Guards regiment in the Turko-Russian war, and for his achievements was promoted to the rank of major-general. Since then he has held various military posts in Russia. Among military authorities he has acquired a reputation for great firmness and independence of character. It is fully expected that in his management of the campaign in Manchuria he will assume a resolute initiative.

The Russian operations in Manchuria have developed a good many interesting problems, but probably none more so than the attempt to carry on a great campaign under two heads.

PRINCE FUSHIMI
Of the Japanese royal family, sent by the Emperor to represent the empire at the St. Louis exposition

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BOOKS AND READING

Japan: An Attempt at Interpretation. By Lafcadio Hearn. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. 541. $2 net.

Mr. Hearn was for fourteen years a resident of Japan, having become a naturalized citizen of that empire. For seven years he was a lecturer in the Imperial University of Tokyo. He lived in the midst of actual Japanese life, and he came to have an exceptional knowledge of his adopted fellow citizens. This posthumous volume is in many ways the most philosophical study of Japan which has appeared in English, although it has not the elaboration of certain works and contains hardly an anecdote. It is really a serious and penetrating study of the social mind of Japan. In pursuing this exposition Mr. Hearn very properly began with the Japanese religions, and showed why Japanese custom has exercised and is still exercising such singular control over each individual man and woman of a transformed empire. As contrasted with the ordinary book of travelers, this work brings one into the spirit rather than the outward appearances of the people. To one who has read it, the public spirit shown at the present moment in the Russo-Japanese War grows far less inexplicable. If Mr. Hearn is to be trusted, and it is hard to see why he should not be, the Japanese nation, notwithstanding its remarkable absorption of European civilization, has never really ceased to be possessed of the Japanese spirit. Face to face with the problems which have brought industrial and other crises into occidental civilization, the empire will doubtless find itself forced to choose between this persistent spirit and something which is nearer akin to that of Europe. If such a change should ever occur, he who has mastered this work of Mr. Hearn will be in a position to master the change in the Japanese social mind. For he will already have been led to understand what the Japanese nature really is.

For any one who is acquainted with Mr. Hearn's writings there is no need of adding that the volume is written with an exquisite precision of diction, and with a sympathy which in turn begets sympathy on the part of the reader.

The Trail Makers. A series of historical exploits by Professor John Bach McMaster, consulting editor. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., ten volumes. $10 net, or $1 per volume.

It is one of the most hopeful signs of interest in historical work that the sources from which we must write the history of our country are being put at the disposal of the "general reader." There have been a number of reprints of journals and other documents, but in most cases they have been expensive. When not published entire they have lost their scientific value. The present series meets both these difficulties. The texts are published in full, but are in an inexpensive form. The type is clear, the paper good and the binding attractive. The series thus far contains the diaries of Coronado and McKenzie, the Lewis and Clark journals, Cadwallader Colden's history of the Five Nations, as well as the travels of Harmon, and General Butler's diary of his trip across western Canada. Doubtless just at present the largest interest will be felt in the journal of Lewis and Clark. It is a reprint of Biddle's (or Allen's) edition, and has the benefit of the editorship of Professor McMaster, and is furnished with various explanatory notes. All the volumes of the series are well supplied with maps. The publishers have done the reading public a genuine service in thus placing at its disposal the materials of first importance, which otherwise would be known only to technical scholars, or to those who can afford expensive reprints. Every school library in the United States should have this series, and every boy should read at least one of these extraordinarily interesting accounts of adventure and exploration.

History of the Ancient World. By George Stephen Goodspeed. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. xiv, 483. $1.50 net.

While this volume is intended primarily as a text-book, it should find its place in every one's library. There is no other book that combines in such a satisfactory way lucidity and distinction of style with the bibliographical and other materials which a book of reference should have. The problems of selection and perspective in a book which covers history from the earliest antiquity to the reign of Charlemagne are most perplexing. Professor Goodspeed has achieved exceptional success in both regards. For any one who wants an outline sketch not merely of the wars but of the actual life of the ancient world, there is no book quite its equal.

A Yankee on the Yangtze. By William Edgar Geil. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. Pp. 312. $1.50.

Mr. W. E. Geil, an American evangelist of strong personality and original methods, has been making a missionary journey around the world, and now the narrative of his travels has begun to appear. The present volume is a very readable story of a trip through the interior of China to Upper Burma and thence to Rangoon. Provided with plenty of money, a good outfit and a pleasing address, he passed through the usual vicissitudes of travelers with undisturbed good nature, and tells of his adventures with abundance of humor and shrewd observation. The comments of such a man on the methods and personality of the missionaries whom he met are worth much more than those of the ordinary globe-trotter. In sympathy with their aims, and appreciating to the full their self-sacrifice and efficiency, he still is able to point out some things which it would

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be to their advantage to change. The numerous illustrations of the book are not the usual stock pictures, but are all from Mr. Geil's own photographs, and add much to the value of the narrative.

Letters From the Holy Land: Ernest Renan to His Friend, M. Berthelot. Translated by Lorenzo O'Rourke. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. xxxiv, 313. $2 net.

The title of this book is decidedly misleading. Of the 313 pages contained in the present volume only fifty deal with Palestine. Most of the letters are from Italy. For the most part they add little to our knowledge of Renan, and serve rather to make more distinct the impresssion which the literary world already has of him and of his work. Anything that Renan wrote is possessed of charm, and these letters are no exception. Of them all, however, those from Palestine possess the least excellence and are of the least value as expressions of the personality of their writer. Renan's later letters contained in the present volume are not important. Altogether it must be admitted that the book is a disappointment.

Roma Beata. Letters from the Eternal City. By Maude Howe. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. Pp. 361. $2.50 net.

It is a sad year that does not give us a book about Rome, but since Story's "Roba di Roma" there has been nothing that for charm has quite equaled this volume of Mrs. Eliott. It is not merely that the volume is full of good comradeship and vivacity, it is full of the Italian atmosphere. Mrs. Eliott has not hesitated to give us conversations *in extenso,* and many of them are refreshingly true to the spirit of the Italian peasant. It is a book that every lover of Italy will welcome. Such of the illustrations as Mr. Eliott contributes add decided charm to the volume.

Disraeli. A Study in Personality and Ideas By Walter Sichel. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Co. Pp. 334. $2.50 net.

As the title indicates, Mr. Sichel has not undertaken to write either an ordinary biography or a history of Disraeli's political career. The picturesque personality of the man, his brilliant, versatile, romantic mind, the daring novelty of his political and social ideas, are what have attracted the author of this "study." From the public speeches, the letters, the conversations and the novels of the great statesman he has drawn a most lifelike portrait. The contrast to Gladstone which suggests itself at almost every point is used to advantage. Disraeli's close relations with the late Queen Victoria and the qualities which made these relations possible are more clearly shown by such a study as this than by a merely political narrative. The obvious connection between the imperialistic schemes of Disraeli and the development of the British Empire since the Indian Mutiny is well brought out. His words spoken in 1856 regarding the future expansion of the United States, with generous and wise recognition of the right of this nation to expand its territory and its powers, were far in advance of his time and sound prophetic to-day. Mr. Sichel's style is epigrammatic and original. In the course of his chapters will be found many sage remarks on political and social matters which arrest the attention. The volume is one of the few important biographies of the year.

Recollections and Letters of Gen. Robert E. Lee. By his son, Robert E. Lee. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. 461. $2.50 net.

Much new light upon the personal character of Lee is to be found in these intimate recollections of the great soldier by his son, Captain Lee. A large number of family letters not hitherto published show the affectionate and conscientious nature of the man, his scrupulous regard for the feelings of others, his high sense of duty. The many little incidents related by Captain Lee which have not before found their way into print will be read with interest by those who love a hero without fear and without reproach. Little that is new can, of course, be written at this late day on the military history of the war, and the writer dwells but little on the details of Lee's campaigns, preferring rather to show how he entered into the little joys and sorrows of his friends, how considerate and generous he was with old family servants and strangers in difficulty, and all sorts of people who needed help—these little things that go to make up a gentleman fit to be the type of the old-time southern chivalry. The task is well performed.

Music, and Other Poems. By Henry Van Dyke. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 116. $1.

By such verses as these Dr. Van Dyke naturally challenges comparison with Richard Watson Gilder, who has written on like themes in many of the same forms. The comparison at once settles Dr. Van Dyke's rank as lower than Mr. Gilder's in lyric power and in melody. Yet there are two or three poems in the volume, such as "Peace" and "God of the Open Air," which are in the true poetic style, undiluted with such moralizing as mars some of the others. Dr. Van Dyke's magazine verse always has a meaning to it, which is more than can be said for most of the class.

Every-day People. By Charles Dana Gibson. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.20 net.

The seventy-five drawings in the latest addition to the now famous series of Gibson books show more than the usual skilful draftsmanship. There is more versatility and knowledge of expression and human nature than appeared in the earlier volumes. It is not so much given over to the society side of life, but is a book for "every-day people."

The Marvelous Land of Oz. By Frank L. Baum. Chicago: The Reilly & Britton Co. Pp. 287. $1.25 retail.

In his new volume Mr. Baum has added to the already large debt which children owe him. Naturally, it has not quite the novelty of "The Wizard of Oz," but it has the delightful humor which runs in the author's other work. It is a

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pleasant thing to have such a storybook as this to bring to the reinforcement of parental discipline. The illustrations are interesting and often effective. Mr. Baum is further to be congratulated on adding the Woggle Bug to our vocabulations. Could anything be more self-explanatory?

Fiction

George Madden Martin gave us an altogether unique book when she wrote "Emmy Lou." Her recent volume, "The House of Fulfillment" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50), works a more conventional vein. Yet it is not itself conventional. It is not a story of childhood, but it tells of some very attractive children. It is a book of singularly well contrasted characters and embodies a couple of love stories full of distinction and delicacy. It is these qualities as well as the book's sincerity that make it thoroughly worth reading.

Rome is the common property of the novelist, and what would a novel dealing with Rome be without the mysterious countess? Certainly "The Private Tutor," by Gamaliel Bradford, Jr. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.50), in so far as it deals with those two elements, is a rather unfortunate rival of Marion Crawford's books. But the book possesses one virtue, for which we may well be thankful; it does not give guidebook descriptions. Rome is the background, not a protrusion, and the real center of the book —the son of a millionaire who is at once a cad, a fool and an embryonic financial genius—is not ill done. And as long as we are counting the virtues of the book let it be added that its love story is refreshingly matter of fact. Despite its attempt at cynicism the book has real promise.

Stewart Edward White has achieved a literary position by his power of vivid description of the unconventional life in the forest or on the plains. He is essentially a short-story writer, and there are few better. In "The Blazed Trail Stories" (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50), he has gathered together sketches which have appeared during the last four or five years in different publications. In many particulars they are the best work which he has done. Not only are they well considered literary units, but they have a sense of the author's enjoyment in his work that gives them a freshness and vigor that push them up toward some of Kipling's stories. It is a pity, however, that Mr. White had not a larger range of title. He has already published " A Blazed Trail," and he has two volumes called "The Forest" and "The Magic Forest." Probably, though, he does not regard himself as a maker of books of reference, and so duplicated titles have no terror for him.

Anything that Elizabeth Stuart Phelps writes is full of sentiment and purpose. "Trixy" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co., $1.50), is no exception. It is a harrowing story showing how impossible it is for a man to practice vivisection and at the same time maintain any sort of ideals. The book is almost too painful to read, but like the recent "Story of a Dog," by Mark Twain, it will add fuel to more or less righteous fires.

In a recent review in these columns of George B. McCutcheon's "The Sherrods," the hope was expressed that he would go back to his romantic novels rather than to pursue a dubious path in modern problems. In "Beverly of Graustark" (Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.50) he has met our wishes. The volume deals with old friends, but this time an independent American girl is in the center of the stage. The book has splendid dash and action. It will undoubtedly repeat the success of its predecessors.

Miriam Michelson, in "The Bishop's Carriage," gave us the picture of an exceedingly attractive young woman. In "The Madigans" (Century Company, $1.50) she has given us six very disagreeable girls. Miss Michelson's talent is so undoubted that even out of this poor material she has made a story that has individuality and human interest. It is not a "child's story" by any means. Of course girls ought not to quarrel, but they do, and Miss Michelson has given to the quarreling of these irrepressible Madigans an occasional pathos that somehow takes the curse off their jangling. And certainly they are singularly bright children—and wonderfully like some other people's we know.

There is a busy lawyer in Chicago, generally regarded as rather radical in his political views, who has written a book about boyhood that is genuine literature. Clarence S. Darrow's "Farmington" (A. C. McClurg & Co., $1.50) has already attracted attention among the critics for its pure, limpid style, its delicate sentiment, its fidelity to nature. Most men who try to write such a book err either by forced humor or overwrought sentimentality. Mr. Darrow sees the old village days not without the glamour of distance, yet fully conscious of the humorous phases of early experiences. Laughter and sighs come strangely close together, as they do when any of us look back upon the days of beginnings. The pictures of men and women, as seen through the child's eyes, are startlingly real. This piece of prose poetry reminds one constantly of another Chicago man who kept the child heart to the end—Eugene Field.

A new volume by Kipling is still an event in the world of fiction, little as some people think of his later verse. In "Traffics and Discoveries" (Doubleday, Page & Co., $1.50) we have stories of the South African War, of the army and navy, of the occult, about evenly divided. In the sea yarns there is more of the sailors' slang than ever, and the one automobile story fairly reeks with the motorist's dialect. Action abounding, language that sparkles with phosphorescent radiance, exuberant play of human impulses, are here as of old. The wizard has not lost his power. "Wireless" is a tale that haunts one for many a dark night.

A story that makes one think of "The Lightning Conductor," "The Honorable Peter Sterling," and a half dozen other books, while at the same time it is innocent of plagiarism, is "The Man on The Box," by Harold MacGrath (Bobbs-Merrill Company, $1.50). It tells how a young society man became a coachman and butler of the girl he loved but had never "met." Any one can see that there are opportunities for complications. Whether the author himself has also seen them must be left to the reader.

A story told in a series of letters is naturally handicapped, and Mary Farley Sanborn in "The

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Revelation of Herself" (Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.50), has difficulty in overcoming the handicap. It is a love story of the good old sort, but with some novel elements. For instance, an aged woman is shocked to death by lightning, and a young woman transfers a large inheritance to the daughter of the man she was expected to marry but wouldn't. The gradual growth of the girl's love for a second man, whom she had jilted, is traced in her letters up to the point where she satisfies her conscience by giving away her property, and her love by marrying the man of her somewhat delayed choice.

In "Manassas" (Macmillan Company, $1.50), a young writer, Upton Sinclair, has produced a war novel of considerable power. He has had the originality to write a story without a love motive, in which the hero runs away from his first battle and differs in other respects from the orthodox military prodigy of the prevalent school of fiction. The strength of the book lies in its vivid descriptions of mobs, riots and scenes of violence. It is overloaded with historical detail, and the author uses his powers of character-drawing chiefly upon the public men who come upon the scene, leaving little for his hero and the individuals who figure in the plot. A southern lad, educated in the North, imbibes abolition principles and finally enters the Union army, taking part as a terrified spectator rather than a combatant in the first battle of Manassas. The spirit of the book is bitterly anti-southern, and it will stir up animosities better forgotten. But for those of the younger generation who like to dream of the glories of war and lament that they were born too late to share in the thrills of the early sixties, a reading of "Manassas" will suffice to cure them of further yearnings. For sheer, unshrinking, nauseating realism in the description of a battle, Mr. Sinclair can certainly hold his own with Stephen Crane and greater writers of the past.

J. J. Bell made a sudden success in "Wee Macgreegor." In "Jess & Co." (Harpers, $1.25) he has left the kingdom of the small boy and offers us a story of the success attending an energetic Scottish wife's conduct of the carpenter business of a husband who wanted to be a gardener. Surely he can promise us few thrilling adventures. But after one reaccustoms himself to the Scottish dialect we once learned so well, the story discovers genuine human interest. Interwoven in it is the humor which we came to know in "Wee Macgreegor," and the inevitable pathos of the Scottish stories. It is not a work of the Jove-compelling sort, but it is wholesome and appealing.

Books for Young People

Japanese stories are now quite the vogue and it is inevitable that a story of a Japanese boy should appear. Fortunately the first that appears is "Kibun Daizin" by one of the most prominent writers of Japan, Gensai Murai (Century Company, $1.25). It is a capital story of how a courageous and thoughtful boy got to be a great merchant prince. It is a good book for boys to read.

The last addition to Little, Brown & Co.'s illustrated edition of Miss Alcott's stories is "Eight Cousins" ($2.00). It is beautifully printed and well illustrated. It is good to see an old friend reappearing in such happy circumstances. In the tremendous output of juvenile literature, we have yet to find anything that is superior to these healthy stories of Louisa Alcott.

A charming little book for children is "Granny's Wonderful Chair," by Frances Browne, with an introduction by Frances Hodgson Burnett. (McClure, Phillips & Co., $1.50.) It deals with fairies and princesses and beautiful maidens, and fishermen, and all the other wonderful people children ought to know just as they go to bed. They are not modern sophisticated fairies, but the genuine sort of people grown-ups knew when they were little. For it is an old book republished, and we should be thankful to Mrs. Burnett for republishing it.

Among the new books, we note several having for their basis events in the nation's history. Samuel Adams Drake, author of "Watch Fires of '76," etc., has written a story of California life in the fifties, entitled, "The Young Vigilantes" (Lee & Shepard, $1.25). It is well written and full of adventure, presenting a vivid picture of the life of those days. It is withal a wholesome book for boys. That prolific writer, Edward Stratemeyer, has another volume in his "Colonial Series," "On the Trail of Pontiac, or the Pioneer Boys of the Ohio." (Lee & Shepard, $1.25.) Although complete in itself, it introduces characters which have previously figured in the series. Young men, as well as boys, will enjoy the story. A volume to stimulate patriotism in both young and old is to be found in Helen M. Cleveland's "Stories of Brave Old Times," some pen pictures of scenes which took place previous to or connected with the American Revolution. (Lee & Shepard, $1.25.) The author has a keen sense of the dramatic and knows how to awaken enthusiasm and interest in her readers. Another good historical story is "A Lass of Dorchester," by Annie M. Barnes. (Lee & Shepard.) It is a well-written and deeply interesting account of family experiences in the old colonial days of 1704, with pen pictures of life in Boston Town and the Carolinas.

There is no lack this season of books for girls. One of the best is Evelyn Raymond's "An Honor Girl." (Lee & Shepard, $1.25.) It is brightly written, with plenty of movement and stir, so that the high, fine motives dominating the story leave their impress without in any sense making dry reading. It is specially adapted to high school girls. Its enthusiastic spirit will attract them. Amanda M. Douglas, who is so well known to young people, provides another book for girls in "Helen Grant's Friends." (Lee & Shepard, $1.25.) The hopes and aims of girlhood are well treated, and a healthy spirit runs through the story. It is a sequel to "Helen Grant's School Days," and the author promises to carry on the succession. "The Taming of Betty," by Cally Ryland (Lee & Shepard, $1), is a description of a wilful, high-spirited child's escapades at boarding school, whither she has been sent to be "tamed." Her loving, truthful nature, however, wins friends for her, and finally father and mother learn to appreciate her, and by love and tenderness, rather than by sternness, the "taming" process is accomplished. Though a story of a child, it seems to offer suggestions to parents rather than to children.

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THE CALENDAR OF THE MONTH

United States

Airships.—October 31.—Thomas A. Baldwin's airship, operated by A. Roy Knabenshue, made a successful ascent at St. Louis of two thousand feet. This was the first successful attempt in the United States.

Ames.—October 31.—The fourth trial of A. A. Ames, ex-mayor of Minneapolis, for bribery, resulted in disagreement. Eleven jurors voted for his conviction.

Arbitration.—October 28.—Secretary Hay invites the powers to a second conference at the Hague, to consider methods of war, rules of contraband, etc.

Casualties.—October 10.—Twenty-nine persons were killed, and sixty injured, in a collision on the Missouri Pacific Railroad, near Warrensburg, Missouri.

—October 17.—The report of the United States commission on the investigation of the General Slocum disaster definitely placed the responsibility for the accident upon the New York steamboat inspectors. By order of President Roosevelt, Robert S. Bodie, supervising inspector; James A. Dumont and Thomas H. Barrett, local inspectors, were discharged from the service.

—October 28.—An explosion at mine No. 3 of the Rocky Mountain Fuel and Iron Company, at Terolo, forty miles west of Trinidad, Colorado, killed forty men.

—October 14.—The schooner Wentworth, of Moncton, New Brunswick, struck on Chatham Bar, Massachusetts, during a gale, and twelve persons lost their lives.

—November 2.—Ten men were killed by the falling of an elevator at a Delaware, Lackawanna and Western mine, at Nanticoke, Pennnsylvania. . . . The collapse of a water reservoir at Winston Salem, North Carolina, caused the death of nine persons and injury of five.

Crime.—October 18.—The Chicago Citizens' Association reported that for the first time in forty years there was not a policy company operating within the city limits.

—October 18.—Samuel Francis Smith, once mayor of Davenport, Iowa, and son of the author of the national song, "America," was sentenced to eleven years in the penitentiary for embezzlement of over $100,000.

Deaths.—October 14.—Merritt Joslyn, assistant secretary of the interior under President Arthur, died at Woodstock, Illinois.

—October 15.—Alonzo B. Cornell, ex-governor of New York, died at Ithaca, aged seventy-two.

—October 16.—Henry Martyn Shepard, judge in Appellate Court of Cook County, Illinois, and father of eight-hour law, died, aged sixty-five.

—October 16.—William Scott Worth, brigadier-general U. S. A., died, aged sixty-four.

—October 19.—George D. Ruggles, brigadier-general U. S. A., died, aged seventy-one.

—October 25.—Cornelius Van Cott, postmaster of New York city, died, aged sixty-six.

—October 28.—George K. Nash, ex-governor of Ohio, died at Columbus, Ohio, aged sixty-two.

—October 31.—William Henry Elder, Roman Catholic archbishop, died at Cincinnati, Ohio, aged eighty-six.

Education.—October 26.—William E. Huntington, Ph.D., LL.D., was inaugurated president of Boston University. . . Rev. Flavel Sweeten Luther, LL.D., inaugurated president of Trinity College, Hartford, Connecticut.

Labor.—October 18.—Philip Weinseimer, former president of the Building Trades Alliance, was convicted of practicing extortion on a New York contractor.

—October 21.—The strike of the sheet metal workers in Philadelphia and other cities was settled by an agreement with the employers by which an increase of wages, from thirty-seven and a half cents to forty cents an hour, was obtained, a guarantee given that only union men shall be employed, and all strikes and lockouts are barred.

—October 31.—Eight hundred hoisting engineers of the mines of the Illinois Coal Operators' Association went on strike, closing 255 mines and throwing fifty thousand miners out of work. The strike was not sanctioned by the United Mine Workers. Cause of strike: proposed cut in wages of 5.55 per cent.

—November 4.—The United Mine Workers of America ended the strike of the engineers by ignoring the Brotherhood of Hoisting Engineers and ordering the miners to go to work. The engineers will be offered places on condition of joining the United Mine Workers.

Lynching.—October 19.—Five citizens of Eutawville, South Carolina, two of them being peace officers, were arrested on suspicion of complicity in the lynching of Kitt Bokhard, a negro.

—October 21.—The court-martial held to investigate the action of the militia at the lynching of the negroes, Reed and Cato, at Statesboro, Georgia, last August, found guilty and ordered dismissed from the service Captain Hitch; also found guilty, ordered suspended from duty for one year and publicly reprimanded First Lieutenant George A. Mell; also found guilty and ordered to be publicly reprimanded Second Lieutenant Henry L. Griner. Lieutenants Cone and Morrison were found not guilty.

—October 24.—George W. Blount, a negro politician, of Berkeley, Virginia, was taken from the police station and lynched by fifty masked men. Blount had been arrested for striking a policeman in the face. . . . The federal grand jury at Huntsville, Alabama, has returned indictments against members of the mob that lynched Horace Maples, a colored man.

Masonic.—October 19.—The State Grand Lodge of the Knights of Pythias, in session at Peoria, Illinois, voted to debar saloonkeepers and bartenders from seats in the convention. Five delegates from Chicago in the saloon business were ousted.

Navy.—October 7.—The battleship Nebraska was launched at Seattle.

—October 11.—The battleship Georgia was launched at Bath, Maine.

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Politics.—October 10.—President Roosevelt appointed Robert J. Wynne Postmaster-General.

—October 12.—Governor Bates, of Massachusetts, appointed ex-Governor W. Murray Crane to succeed Senator Hoar.

—October 19.—Richard Van Cott, son of the postmaster of New York city and Republican candidate for the Assembly in the Fifth District, and Bankson McAvoy, cashier in the general postoffice, were arraigned on a charge of having colonized non-resident citizens, to secure their votes at the coming election.

—November 4.—President Roosevelt, in a signed statement, replied to slanderous statements made by Judge Parker, emphatically denying the charge of blackmailing corporations, and declaring that he was under no promise except to give every man a square deal.

—November 8.—The Presidential election resulted in the choice of Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, as President, and Charles W. Fairbanks, of Indiana, as Vice-President, with an electoral vote of 335, against a Democratic electoral vote of 133. Roosevelt carried every northern and western state and Missouri, and the returns indicated that the next Congress will have a Republican majority of 110 in the House and 26 in the Senate. Maryland remains doubtful.

GOVERNORS ELECTED NOVEMBER 8.

State.	*Republican.*	*Democratic.*
Colorado	.....	Alva Adams.
Connecticut	Henry Roberts.	
Delaware	Preston Lea.	
Florida	.....	N. B. Broward.
Idaho	Frank R. Gooding.	
Illinois	C. S. Deneen.	
Indiana	J. Frank Hanly.	
Kansas	Edward W. Hoch.	
Massachusetts	.....	W. L. Douglas.
Michigan	Fred M. Warner.	
Minnesota	.....	John A. Johnson.
Missouri	.....	J. W. Folk.
Montana	.....	J. K. Toole.
Nebraska	John H. Mickey.	
New Hampshire	John McLane.	
New Jersey	Edward S. Stokes.	
New York	F. W. Higgins.	
North Carolina	.....	Henry B. Glenn.
North Dakota	E. Y. Sarles.	
Rhode Island	Geo. H. Utter.	
Tennessee	.....	James B. Frazier.
Texas	.....	S. W. T. Lanham.
Utah	John C. Cutler.	
Washington	A. E. Mead.	
West Virginia	W. M. O. Dawson.	
Wisconsin	R. M. La Follette.	

Religion.—October 11-13.—The ninety-fifth annual meeting of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions was held at Grinnell, Iowa.

—October 13.—The Triennial National Council of the Congregational Churches of the United States opened its sessions in Des Moines, Iowa. . . . The annual convention of the Disciples of Christ opened at St. Louis, with an attendance of over ten thousand delegates.

—October 20.—The General Convention of the Episcopal Church adopted a compromise canon allowing clergymen to remarry the innocent party in a divorce for infidelity, after the lapse of one year from the date divorce was granted.

—November 2.—Miss Eva Booth, for eight years commander of the Salvation Army in Canada, was appointed to be commander of the army in the United States; General Booth-Tucker was transferred to duty in London.

Science.—October 18.—A new variable star of the Algol type was discovered by Miss Henrietta Leavitt, of the Harvard astronomical staff. It is in the region of Sagittarius.

Subway.—October 27.—The New York underground railroad was opened to the public, running from the city hall to 145th Street, on the west side line.

Treaty.—November 1.—Secretary Hay and Ambassador Jusserand signed a treaty providing for settlement by arbitration of any disputes arising between this country and France.

Philippines

Rebellion.—October 18.—A constabulary force defeated a large number of Pulajanes in the mountains of eastern Samar, killing the notorious outlaw, Oyomo, and fifty of his followers.

Cuba

Politics.—October 18.—Five members of the Santiago Provincial Election Returning Board have been sentenced to fourteen years and eight months' imprisonment for falsifying returns in order to seat congressmen belonging to the moderate coalition.

Panama

Canal.—October 18.—President Roosevelt decided to send Secretary of War Taft to the isthmus to settle definitely the jurisdiction of the United States over the canal zone.

—October 31.—Governor Davis has appointed new mayors, judges, treasurers and secretaries for the municipalities in the canal zone. All the appointees are natives, with the exception of the judge of Cristobal.

Revolt.—October 21.—An uprising of some two hundred malcontents reported. A force of United States marines will be kept on the isthmus to maintain order in the canal zone.

San Domingo

Revolution.—October 13.—The revolution was extending. Azua de Compostela and all the departments of the south have declared in favor of Isidoro Jiminez.

Argentine Republic

President.—October 12.—Manuel Quintana was inaugurated president of the republic.

Guatemala

Revolution.—October 30.—General Salvador Toledo, with thirty thousand troops of the Salvadorean republic, prepared to invade Guatemala to dethrone Cabrera, the president. Conditions in Guatemala are worse than for many years. An American dollar is worth $15 of the currency of the republic.

Peru

Mountain Climbing.—October 9.—Miss Annie S. Peck ascended Huascan Mountain to a height of twenty-one thousand feet.

Chile

Treaty.—October 17.—A treaty of peace was signed between Chile and Bolivia, by which the former undertakes the payment of war claims.

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British Empire

Deaths.—October 10.—John Hollingshead, associate editor with Charles Dickens and Thackeray, of *Household Words* and the *Cornhill Magazine*, died, aged seventy-seven. Founder, also, of the Alhambra and Gaiety theaters, London.

—October 7.—Mrs. Isabella Bird Bishop, traveler and author, died in Edinburgh, aged seventy-two.

Russian Attack.—October 22.—The Russian Baltic fleet attacked a fleet of forty English fishing trawlers, off Dogger Bank, in the North Sea. One trawler was sunk, two fishermen were killed, and twenty others injured. No assistance was offered by the Russians.

—October 24.—A note of protest was sent to Russia by the British government for an act characterized as "inhuman, unjustifiable and deliberate."

—October 26.—The Czar sent to King Edward and the British government a message of profound regret for the North Sea affair, and promised reparation to the families of the victims. . . . The British fleet were ordered to Gibraltar and other points to be ready for cooperative action. . . Vice-Admiral Rojestvensky, in command of Baltic fleet, reached Vigo, in Spain, and stated that the firing in the North Sea was in self-defense, because of the appearance of torpedo boats. . . Spain peremptorily refused to permit the Russian warships to coal in the harbor at Vigo. German colliers attempted to violate neutrality by furnishing coal in the harbor to the ships.

—October 27.—Count Benckendorff, the Russian ambassador, officially stated to Lord Lansdowne that the British demand for punishment of the Russian officers was an infringement on Russian sovereignty and could not be entertained.

—October 28.—Great Britain and Russia agreed to refer the question of penalty for the North Sea attack to a commission appointed under the Hague convention rules.

—October 30.—The Russian inquiry into the attack on the fishing boats was begun at Vigo.

—October 31.—The St. Petersburg correspondent of the London *Express* stated that the admiralty had definitely ascertained that the Baltic squadron fired on two of its own torpedo boats, and, after discovering the mistake, aimed its shots at the British fishermen.

—November 2.—The Russian government appointed Admiral Kaznakoff, a member of the admiralty council, as one of the international commission on the North Sea difficulty. . . . The Baltic fleet sailed from Vigo, leaving four officers to testify at the meeting of the commission. . . At the coroner's inquest held at Hull, the jury, by government advice, simply set forth the facts proved by witnesses, and did not render any verdict of wilful murder or manslaughter. . . Rojestvensky has been promoted to the rank of vice-admiral and aide-de-camp to the emperor.

—November 3.—British warships have been ordered to escort the Baltic fleet on its voyage to the far East.

Canada

Casualties.—October 11.—Fire in Winnipeg, Manitoba, destroyed property valued at $800,000.

—October 11.—News reached Halifax of wreck of steamer Call, of New London, Prince Edward Island, with loss of all on board—nineteen persons.

Politics.—November 3.—At the Canadian parliamentary elections, the Liberal, or Laurier, government gained a sweeping victory, winning a majority of sixty or seventy seats in the House of Commons.

Religion.—October 11.—The Provincial Synod of Canada opened its sessions in Montreal.

Newfoundland

Politics.—November 2.—The election returns confirmed the success of the Bond government.

British South Africa.

High Commissioner.—October 12.—Lord Milner has resigned the high commissionership of South Africa on account of ill health.

Kruger.—October 31.—The body of ex-President Kruger was removed from the cemetery at the Hague and placed on board the steamer Batavier, at Rotterdam, *en route* to South Africa.

Norway

Arctic Exploration. — October 9. — Captain Amundsen's expedition for discovery of the North Pole, which left Christiania, June 17, 1903, was reported safe in Davis Strait, the western boundary of Greenland.

France

Casualties.—November 3.—One hundred persons were drowned by the sinking of the steamer Gironde after collision with another steamer, near Herbillon, twenty-three miles from Bona, in Algeria.

Dreyfus Case.—October 25.—A court-martial was opened for trial of four officers of the war ministry: Colonels Dautrich, Rollin, Francois and Mareschal, charged with using military funds and otherwise influencing witnesses against Dreyfus at Rennes.

Deaths.—November 4.—Paul de Cassagnac, journalist and noted duelist, died, aged sixty-two.

Labor.—October 12.—The coal heavers at Marseilles resumed work and so ended the dock-workers strike.

Politics.—October 22.—By a vote of 325 to 237, the Chamber of Deputies supported the government policy toward the Vatican.

—November 4.—The attempt of the opposition to force General Andre to resign provoked a riot in the Chamber of Deputies, in which the minister of war was personally assaulted. The session was suspended until order was restored, when the member who had struck General Andre in the face was forcibly removed, and a vote of 343 to 236 declared confidence in the government.

Italy

Navy.—October 12.—The new battleship, Vittorio Emanuele, was launched at Naples.

Politics.—October 17.—Premier Giolitti, at a ministerial council meeting, drew up a report to be presented to King Victor Emmanuel, proposing the dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies, and a general election.

—October 18.—A royal decree fixed the general elections for November 6, and the opening of the new parliament on November 30. The anarchists urged abstention from the elections, and

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recommended a propaganda in favor of the political prisoners. All the garrisons have been reinforced and a squadron of warships is at Genoa.

—October 19.—Several bishops, including Cardinal Ferrari, archbishop of Milan, have petitioned the Pope to consider whether Roman Catholics may not now participate in the general elections.

—November 1.—Attempts made by anarchists to burn the palace of justice at Milan.

—November 6.—The first balloting of the general election for members of the Chamber of Deputies took place without the expected rioting. The clericals participated for the first time since the Italian states were united.

Spain

Deaths.—October 17.—The Infanta Maria de Las Mercedes, princess of the Asturias, died at Madrid.

Portugal

Politics.—October 17.—The Portuguese cabinet resigned.

—October 19.—A new progressive cabinet was constituted, with Luciano Castro as premier.

Belgium

Casualties.—October 7.—A magazine explosion at Fort Sainte Marie, Antwerp, killed eleven soldiers and injured ten others.

German Empire

Art.—October 18.—Emperor William unveiled equestrian statue of Frederick the Great, by Rudolf Maison, in front of the new Museum of Art, in Berlin.

Buildings.—October 11.—The Prussian ministers of public works, the interior and commerce have rejected the petition of the Central Association of German Manufacturers for a removal of the restrictions limiting the height of buildings in Berlin to seventy-four feet.

Casualties.—November 4.—The German bark, Pionier, of Bremerhaven, from Buenos Ayres for Hamburg, was lost, with its entire crew of eighteen persons.

Deaths. — October 14. — Frederic Auguste George, King of Saxony, died, aged seventy-two.

Russian Empire

Reforms.—October 31.—The presidents of thirty-four provincial zemstvos were summoned to St. Petersburg by Prince Sviatopolk-Mirski, minister of the interior, to participate in the consideration of the peasant reforms.

Morocco

Trade.—October 15.—The government has notified all the legations that, commencing November 9, all port-to-port trade in wheat, barley and foodstuffs will be stopped.

Chinese Empire

Fire.—October 31.—The American consulate at Amoy destroyed by fire. Most of the records were burned.

—*Riots.*—October 11.—The British minister, Sir Ernest Satow, notified the Chinese minister of foreign affairs of an uprising in Tamingsu and Chantefu, on the border of Shantung, Chili and Honan provinces. It has ten thousand adherents. The foreign missionaries were seeking refuge.

Japan

War.—October 10.—General Kuropatkin assumed the offensive. The entire Manchurian army advanced toward Liaoyang. . . Bentsiaputze was captured from the Japanese.

—October 11.—Severe fighting about six miles north of Yentai railroad station. . . The Baltic fleet sailed from Reval to Libau.

—October 12.—The Japanese gained a decisive victory. The Russians were retreating.

—October 15.—The. Russians were driven back some twenty miles, and many thousands captured. General Smolenski was killed, and General Rialinkin mortally wounded.

—October 17.—Kuropatkin's army, still fighting bravely, was slowly retreating. Their loss reported at sixty thousand in killed and wounded in the seven days' fighting. Japanese claim loss of fifteen thousand. The engagement officially designated as 'the battle of the Shakhe River.'' . . The Baltic fleet has sailed from Libau.

—October 16.—Kuropatkin had slightly advanced his center, reoccupying Shakhe. The Russians captured nine field and five mountain guns and one hundred and fifty prisoners. The Russians captured Lone Tree Hill, at extreme east of fighting line. . . Japanese took forts on Rihlung Mountain, at Port Arthur, the Russians leaving behind one hundred dead.

—October 17.—Japanese, with nine regiments, attempted to retake Lone Tree Hill, but were repulsed with heavy losses.

—October 18.—Russians had strengthened their position with reinforcements, and were advancing. Japanese had suffered repulses. The rivers were full to the banks, the fords impassable. There were no bridges.

—October 20.—The Japanese now hold a line fifteen miles further north than at the beginning of the battle. Both armies are resting. The Japanese are now ten miles south of Mukden.

—October 22.—The Russian Baltic fleet attacked a fleet of forty English fishing trawlers in the North Sea. Two men were killed and twenty injured. (See under head of British Empire for later events).

—October 23.—An imperial ukase appointed General Kuropatkin commander-in-chief of the Russian army. Admiral Alexieff was retained as viceroy.

—October 27.—The Japanese advanced to the village of Jerdagan, which they captured. They also captured Waitaoshan, after sharp fighting. The Russians retreated across the Shakhe River.

—October 28.—The *Official Messenger*, of St. Petersburg, gazetted the appointment of General Kuropatkin to the command of the naval as well as the land forces in the Far East.

—November 3.—The Japanese have captured all the forts on the east side of Port Arthur.

—November 6.—The bombardment of Port Arthur continued. . . The army organ at St. Petersburg announced the appointment of Generals Linevitch and Kaulbars to the command of the first and third armies, respectively.

—November 8.—The Russians have completely abandoned the town of Port Arthur and taken refuge on the Liaotishan peninsula, which is strongly fortified. General Stoessel has been wounded.

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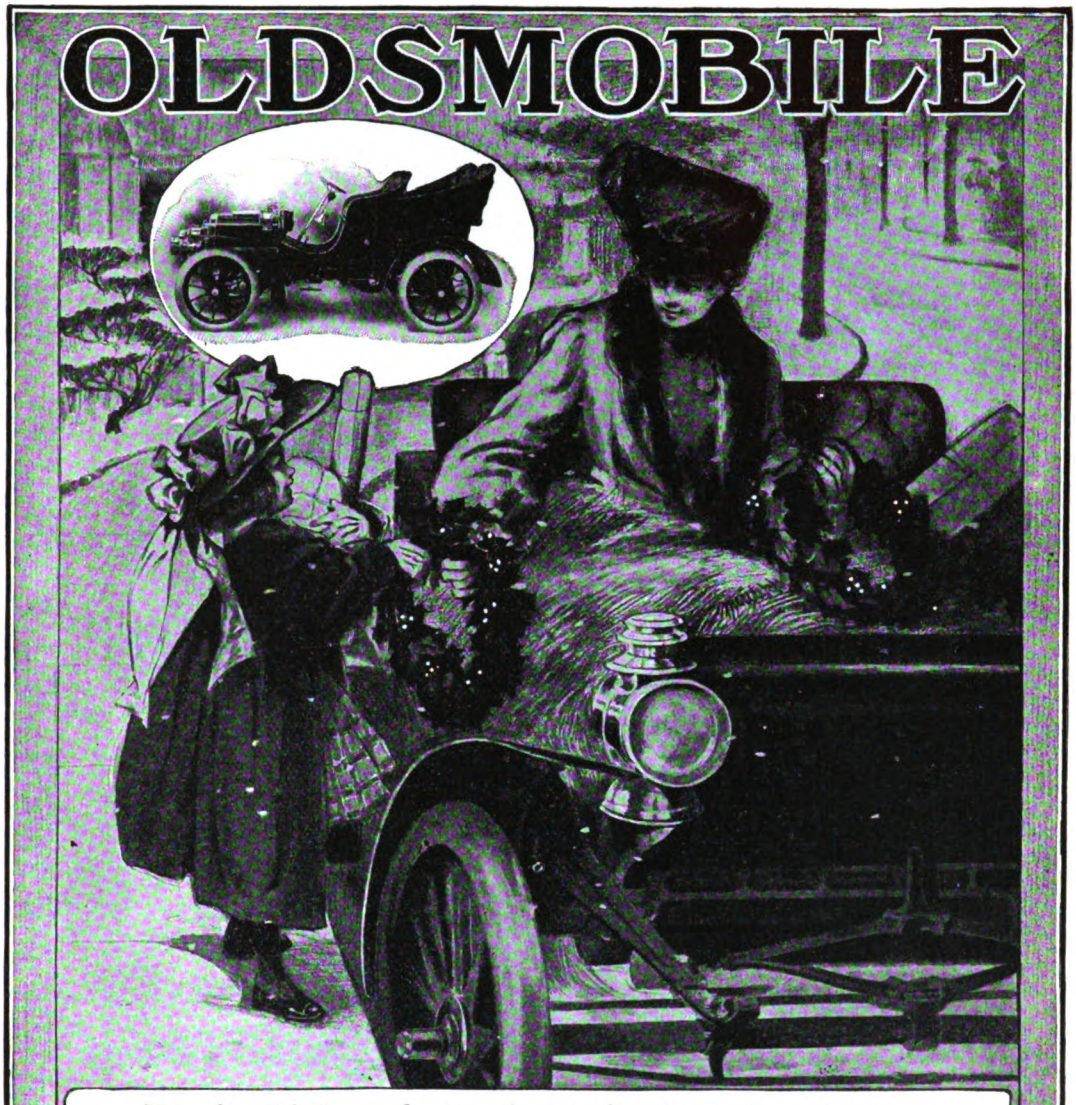

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Look to Your FOOD

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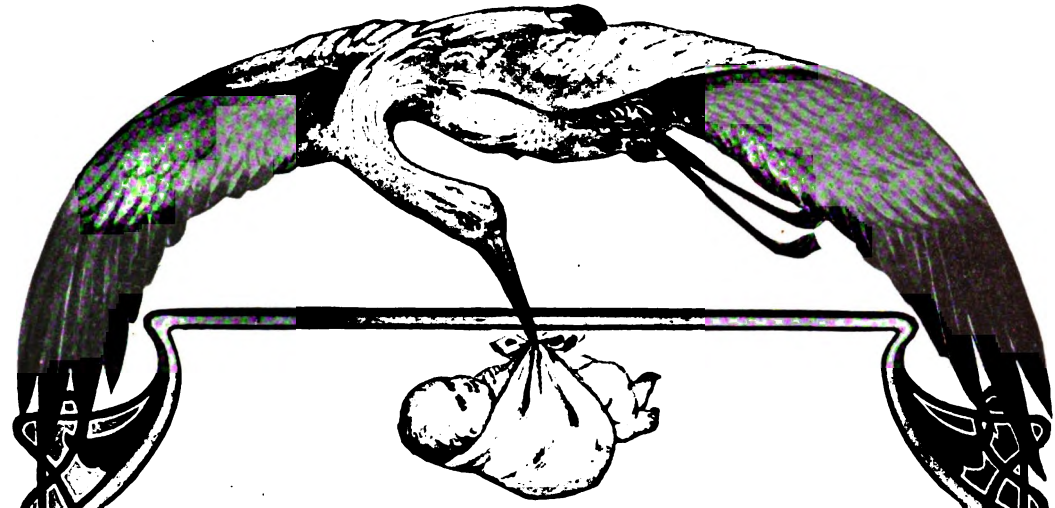

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